

THE DEVELOPMENT AND VALIDATION OF AN
INSTRUMENT TO DETERMINE THE EXTENT
OF SECONDARY SCHOOL INTEGRATION

BY

JOHN WALTER BEALL

A DISSERTATION PRESENTED TO THE GRADUATE SCHOOL
OF THE UNIVERSITY OF FLORIDA IN
PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS
FOR THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

UNIVERSITY OF FLORIDA

1987

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

During the planning, development and completion of this dissertation, the guidance and encouragement of Dr. William Drummond, committee chairman, have been greatly appreciated.

Dr. Arthur Lewis served as committee chairman before his retirement and I am grateful for his support.

Dr. William Hedges served on the committee and provided guidance, supervision, and encouragement.

Drs. Timothy Sullivan, Charles Dzuiban, and Arthur Olson, of the University of Central Florida, gave of their time and expertise in the design and early development of this study.

Throughout the extended time involved in the completion of the dissertation, the interest, concern, and encouragement of family, friends, and colleagues have been a continuous source of strength and renewal. I am especially indebted to Mr. Lloyd Olson and Mrs. June Chamberlain for their assistance with the use of microcomputers.

Finally, I wish to express my love and gratitude to my wife, Brenda, and son, Troy, whose love and understanding enabled me to finish this dissertation.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	<u>Page</u>
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS.....	ii
ABSTRACT.....	v
CHAPTERS	
I THE PROBLEM.....	1
Purpose of the Study.....	1
Background of the Study.....	1
Definitions of Terms.....	2
Delimitations and Limitations of the Study.....	3
Significance of the Study.....	4
Organization of the Study.....	4
II RELATED LITERATURE.....	5
Introduction.....	5
A Historical Perspective of Desegregation.....	5
Federal Studies on the Desegregation of Schools.....	14
Desegregation-Integration.....	21
Role of the School Administrator in the Desegregation-Integration Process.....	24
The Curriculum of an Integrated School.....	26
Role of Teachers in the Desegregation-Integration Process.....	29
The Desegregated-Integrated School and the Community..	35
Desegregation Consequences for Children.....	38
Discipline and School Integration.....	44
The Integrated School.....	46
Process for Test Construction.....	52
Summary.....	53
III DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY.....	56
Introduction.....	56
Locale.....	56
Data Collection Instruments.....	57
Data Collection Procedures and Analysis.....	65
Instrument Analysis.....	70
Summary.....	74

IV	ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION OF RESULTS.....	75
	Introduction.....	75
	Procedures.....	75
	Results Using the Student Survey.....	77
	Results Using the Integration Instrument.....	96
	Analysis of Related Variables from Both Instruments...	111
	Summary.....	115
V	SUMMARY, MAJOR FINDINGS, CONCLUSION, SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH.....	116
	Summary.....	116
	Major Findings.....	119
	Conclusion.....	121
	Recommendations for Further Study.....	121
APPENDICES		
A	FIRST VERSION OF THE INSTRUMENTATION FOR THE ASSESSMENT OF A SCHOOL'S STRENGTHS AND WEAKNESSES IN INTEGRATION.....	124
B	LIST OF RACE DESEGREGATION ASSISTANCE CENTERS DIRECTORS.....	140
C	EXPERT VALIDATION LETTER.....	142
D	FINAL VERSION OF THE INSTRUMENTATION FOR THE ASSESSMENT OF A SCHOOL'S STRENGTHS AND WEAKNESSES IN INTEGRATION.....	145
E	LETTER OF ENDORSEMENT SENT TO EXPERTS.....	154
F	THE SCHOOL CLIMATE AND INTEGRATION QUESTIONNAIRE FOR STUDENTS.....	156
G	LETTER SENT TO OBTAIN PERMISSION TO USE THE SCHOOL CLIMATE AND INTEGRATION QUESTIONNAIRE FOR STUDENTS.....	170
	REFERENCES.....	171
	BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH.....	177

Abstract of Dissertation Presented to the Graduate School
of the University of Florida in Partial Fulfillment of the
Requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Education

THE DEVELOPMENT AND VALIDATION OF AN
INSTRUMENT TO DETERMINE THE EXTENT
OF SECONDARY SCHOOL INTEGRATION

By

John Walter Beall

August 1987

Chairman: Dr. William Drummond

Major Department: Educational Leadership

The primary purpose of this study was to develop and validate an instrument designed to determine the extent of secondary school racial integration using the School Climate and Integration Questionnaire for Students as the criterion measure. A secondary purpose was to determine the extent of integration in the schools used for validation.

A review of literature was completed and an instrument, entitled the Instrumentation for the Assessment of a School's Strengths and Weaknesses in Integration, was constructed and validated. The instrument provided a means for practitioners to examine the status of a secondary school on various sensitive indicators of integration. The items which were included in the instrument were selected as a result of what experts, familiar with the desegregation-integration continuum, recommended as indices of integrated schools. Content validity of the instrument was established by ratings made by directors of the federal desegregation centers for race on each item

of the instrument. Sixteen factors and practices were found to be related to school integration, including

1. The extent to which a school's curriculum dealt with the history, culture, and contributions of minorities to American society.

2. The ethnic composition of a school's staff and student population.

3. The school's disciplinary practices and procedures.

4. The distribution, by ethnic group, of students enrolled in college preparatory or special education classes.

5. The participation of minority students in school extracurricular activities.

6. The student friendship patterns found in the school.

A comparison was made between the instrument developed in this study and the School Climate and Integration Instrument Questionnaire for Students, a criterion measure that had been previously validated. The purpose of this comparison was to determine if similarities existed between the specific integration characteristics measured by each instrument. Seven comparable school integration characteristics were found to be present. The two instruments were then used to determine the extent of integration found in two Florida high schools. The findings were comparable.

Based on the results of this study, it was concluded that the developed instrument, Instrumentation for the Assessment of a School's Strengths and Weaknesses in Integration, can be used by practicing school leaders to measure a school's integration status.

CHAPTER I

Purpose of the Study

The primary purpose of this study was to develop and validate an instrument intended to determine the extent of secondary school racial integration using the School Climate and Integration Questionnaire for Students as the criterion measure. A secondary purpose was to determine the extent of integration in the schools used for validation.

Background of the Study

Racial segregation was declared unlawful in the public education sector by the United States Supreme Court in Brown v. Board of Education. In its 1954 decision, the Court declared that "separate educational facilities are inherently unequal." This decision opened the door for the beginning of school desegregation.

A group of social scientists and educators was commissioned by the United States Congress in 1964 to conduct a study in America's schools "concerning the lack of availability of equal educational opportunities for individuals by reason of race, color, religion, or national origin" (Coleman, 1972, p. 146). In 1966, Coleman et al. reported in Equality of Educational Opportunity (1966) that children from disadvantaged backgrounds did somewhat better in schools that were predominantly economically middle class than in schools that were homogeneously economically lower class. The results of this report were generally interpreted to mean that educational programs for children were improved by school desegregation (Bazeli, 1976). The road to

desegregation since Brown has been anything but smooth. Often school systems and communities have fought the court ordered plans which would ensure desegregation in their districts. Even in the face of stiff resistance, these plans have called for students from one community to be bussed to schools of another community for purposes of desegregation. The desegregation plans ordered or approved by the courts have had a single requirement, that of racial balance. One motive behind the desegregation of the schools was to provide the first step in the process of providing minority students access to equal educational opportunities. Yet, could efforts to achieve racial balance bring about equal access? One authority, Bazeli (1976), did not believe it would necessarily follow.

The arguments that compelled the decision of the Supreme Court in Brown v. Board of Education, 1954, mandating desegregation of schools, were based on sanguine expectations concerning student interaction in multiracial schools. It was presumed that putting children from diverse subcultural backgrounds together in the same school would result in a high level of interaction. In a word, it was thought that integration would automatically follow mixing. This has not occurred automatically. (p. 81)

Definitions of Terms

For the purpose of this study, the following definitions were used:

Desegregation is the "extent to which the pupil population and the staff of a school includes members of all ethnic groups in proportion to their numbers in the population served by the school district" (Doering, 1974, p. 1).

Integration is the "social process by which students, parents, and educators from a variety of ethnic backgrounds work together to

develop a social organization which involves members of each ethnic group in equal status relations and which reflects the culture of each group in its program" (Doering, 1974, p. 2).

Observation team is the researcher and a trained observer.

Secondary school is any school that has in its name either "middle," "junior," or "senior high school."

The Court is the United States Supreme Court.

Delimitations and Limitations of the Study

1. The vast majority of the research examined in this study dealt with the desegregation or integration of schools which had a majority population consisting of white students and a minority population consisting of black students. Therefore, the findings and conclusion described in Chapter V may only apply to schools which have a similar student racial composition.

2. Two secondary schools in a Florida school district were selected as population samples for validating the instrument developed during this study. While these two schools' student racial compositions were representative of the racial composition of the community in which each was located, the minority population was only 8%. Therefore, the findings and conclusion described in Chapter V may only apply to schools with similar student body racial compositions.

3. The attitudes of eleventh grade students at each high school in the district were measured by the School Climate and Integration Questionnaire for Students as developed by W. Genova and H. Walberg (1979).

Significance of the Study

By the mid 1980s, many educators were beginning to see that the desegregation of schools alone did not guarantee that students of different ethnic backgrounds would interact in a friendly and open manner. Desegregation does not always lead to integration. Therefore, administrators of schools needed to know what steps to take to promote student integration.

There were factors which school administrators could not control that affected a student's racial attitudes and behaviors. Among these factors were a student's family socioeconomic status and prior interracial experiences. Yet, there were factors over which the school administrators had control that might affect the student's racial attitudes and behavior.

The primary purpose of this study was to develop and validate an instrument which could be used by administrators to measure the extent of integration found in their schools. If administrators were provided a means for examining the status of a school on various sensitive indicators of integration, they could make better informed decisions and thus improve their schools' existing race relations.

Organization of the Study

The study was organized as follows: Chapter II includes a review of related literature; Chapter III provides a description of the methodology of the study; Chapter IV contains a presentation and analysis of the results of the study; and Chapter V consists of a summary of the study, a discussion of the findings, a conclusion, and recommendations for additional research.

CHAPTER II REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Introduction

The desegregation of schools has been one of America's "most explosive social issues for more than a century" (Stephan, 1980, p.3). The roots of the controversy over school desegregation extend into the earliest part of American history. In order to understand the present state of school desegregation, a knowledge of the past was essential. A summary of many of the significant issues in American history which had a direct effect on desegregation is presented. A section dealing with two studies commissioned by the federal government as part of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 on the inequality of educational opportunities in America is given. The next section deals with distinctions that were made between the concepts of desegregation and integration. This is followed by seven sections which deal with factors that had contributed to the success of a school moving towards integration. The final section deals with the process for test construction.

A Historical Perspective of Desegregation

Blacks were first brought to America as slaves in 1619. Many whites divested blacks of their traditions and subordinated them (Stephan, 1980). The only education most blacks received was training in the skills required to maintain the plantation system. Any formal education posed a threat to the system itself. Many whites believed that once a black received a formal education he or she would attempt to move up from his or her current repressed social status and thus

could cause a disruption in the social harmony of the time. In fact, during the early 1800s the formal education of blacks was illegal in nearly every state (Weinberg, 1970).

Educational repression towards blacks was practiced in the North as well as the South. Educational discrimination against free blacks was widely found. Less than 7% of all free blacks attended schools in 1860 (DuBois, 1935). Thus, it was a rare and isolated instance when a black was able to receive any kind of formal education in any region of the country before the Civil War.

After the Civil War, during the time of Reconstruction, blacks gained a measure of political influence in southern states. They used their new power to build, fund, and staff schools. Charles Sumner, a United States senator, in a speech before the United States Congress, stated that before any southern state was readmitted to the Union it must guarantee the establishment of public schools which were open to all without distinction of race or color (Tyack & Lowe, 1986). Mr. Sumner's request was not fulfilled. Also during this time, the federal government established the Freedman's Bureau (1868-1872). This bureau created some 4,300 elementary and secondary schools and founded Howard, Fisk, and Hampton universities for blacks (Fain, Shostak, & Dean, 1979).

School segregation was practiced throughout the country. In 1871, the state supreme courts of Ohio and Indiana ruled that separate schools for blacks and whites were legal if they were equal (Gossett, 1975).

A challenge to segregation was made by Homer Plessy in 1896. He questioned the right of the East Louisiana railroad to place him in a

segregated coach reserved for blacks (Leflar, 1970). In 1896, the United States Supreme Court ruled that the absolute equality of the two races was guaranteed by the Fourteenth Amendment, but

in the nature of things it could not have been intended to abolish distinctions based on color, or to enforce social as distinguished from political equality, or a co-mingling of the two races upon terms unsatisfactory to either. Laws permitting, or even requiring, separation in places where the races are liable to be brought into contact do not necessarily imply the inferiority of either race. (Plessy v. Ferguson, 1896)

From this decision the doctrine of "separate but equal" became law. This defined the legal framework of race relations for the next 58 years, until the United States Supreme Court eventually reversed itself in Brown v. Board of Education (Stephan, 1980).

While black children attended separate schools from whites, those schools could hardly be considered equal. In 1930, the national average per pupil expenditure was \$99.00. In the South the average expenditure for whites was \$44.00, yet for blacks it was only \$13.00 (Thompson, 1974).

The National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP) began to apply pressure for concrete change to occur in school desegregation. One of the avenues for change the NAACP chose was through the court system. In 1938, the NAACP Legal Defense and Educational Fund was created. It became a major source of funds for school desegregation litigation (Greenberg, 1969).

In 1936, the United States Supreme Court ruled that the first black must be admitted to the University of Maryland because the state did not maintain a separate law school for blacks (Gossett, 1975). Similar rulings occurred in Texas, Missouri, and Oklahoma (Gossett,

1975). After favorable desegregation court rulings had occurred in higher education, the NAACP decided that the time had come for an open challenge to segregation in public schools (Gossett, 1975).

The United States Supreme Court had five separate cases before it in 1954 that posed the same issue: that segregation itself violated the "equal protection under the laws" guaranteed by the Fourteenth Amendment.

The first public school system to be challenged through the courts for its segregation policy was that of Clarendon County, South Carolina. Social scientists served as expert witnesses in the case and cited research that favored desegregation (Kluger, 1976). One of the expert witnesses who testified in this case was psychologist Dr. Kenneth Clark. His testimony dealt with a study he had conducted that intended to measure the self-esteem of black children. His sample consisted of 253 black children who either attended segregated schools in the South or desegregated schools in the North. They were asked a series of questions concerning their reactions to white and black dolls. From their responses Dr. Clark concluded that the self-esteem of blacks was low in segregated schools and that segregation encouraged black children to be prejudiced towards whites (Kluger, 1976). Other social scientists cited research against segregation at the trial. Two of the three federal district judges ruled in favor of continuing segregation in Clarendon County; the case was then appealed to the Supreme Court.

The next case to raise the issue of school segregation was Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka. The secondary schools in this district were desegregated but the elementary schools were not. During the trial, educators testified that segregation had negative effects on learning and asserted that schools, if desegregated, would increase the achievement of blacks. The court ruled against the plaintiffs but did state that segregated schools were inevitably unequal (Kluger, 1976).

The NAACP brought two Delaware school districts to court for their policy of segregation. They claimed that the physical facilities provided for blacks and whites in the Claymont and Hockessin school districts were clearly unequal. Again psychologists appeared as expert witnesses attacking the policy of segregation. The court ruled that while segregation may be constitutional, the separate schools in Claymont and Hockessin were clearly not equal (Kluger, 1976). This was the first time that a judge ruled against segregation in public schools.

The fourth case was Davis v. County School of Prince Edward County, Virginia. The students at the black Moton High School went on strike in 1951 because they felt their school facility was not equal to the white high school facility. Again social scientists acted as expert witnesses. The court agreed that the facilities were not equal and ordered the school system to equalize its facilities for blacks with "diligence and dispatch" (Kluger, 1976).

The final case, which was later grouped in the Brown decision, came from Washington, D. C.: James Nabrit, Dean of the Howard Law School, argued that blacks in the District were entitled to attend

desegregated schools. He stated that the Constitution was a flexible document meant to be interpreted to guarantee desegregation. The court did not accept this argument (Kruger, 1976).

In 1954, these five cases were before the United States Supreme Court and were consolidated for argument in what became known as *Brown*. I. The "Warren Court" struck down the separate but equal policy in public education. Their decision included the following:

Does segregation of children in public schools solely on the basis of race, even though the physical facilities and other "tangible" factors may be equal, deprive the children of the minority group of equal educational opportunities? We believe that it does . . . to separate Negro school children from others of similar age and qualifications solely because of their race generates a feeling of inferiority as to their status in the community that may affect their hearts and minds in a way unlikely ever to be undone. . . . We conclude that in the field of public education the doctrine "separate but equal" has no place. Separate educational facilities are inherently unequal. (Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka, 1954)

The court decided that the states must provide educational opportunities to all on equal terms. The immense problem of implementing this decision faced the court. It ordered the parties involved in *Brown* to prepare for a reargument of the case at the next term, and at that time, to focus their attention on the problem of implementation.

One year later the court handed down its implementation decision. In Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka (1955) the court gave the power for the implementation of desegregation of public schools to the federal district courts. The United States Supreme Court made the following points to guide its lower federal courts:

1. The local school authorities have the primary responsibility for implementation.

2. The function of the federal court is to determine if the local school board's response constitutes good faith implementation.

3. The federal district court is to be guided by the principle of equal educational opportunity espoused in Brown I and is not to yield simply because of disagreement with that principle.

4. The district court should take into account the practical problems of implementation but the local school authorities must take a prompt and reasonable start, and thereafter the court should ensure that desegregation proceeds "with all deliberate speed" (Read, 1975).

While the United States Supreme Court ruled that the desegregation of schools should proceed "with all deliberate speed" the actual completion of the desegregation process would not come for many years. Many people received the Brown decisions with resentment and anger. One example of this opposition was the 1956 manifesto signed by 101 southern senators and congressmen which declared that integration as ordered by the court was "contrary to established law" (Bergman, 1969, p. 555). Another typical reaction was exemplified by a headline carried in a Mississippi newspaper describing the day of the Brown I decision as "The Darkest and Most Tragic Day in the Administration of American Justice" (Sarratt, p. 12, 1966). The pace of the desegregation of schools was apparently to be determined on a case-by-case basis by the district courts, thereby striking a balance between individual and community interests (Read, 1975).

A decision made by a federal court in South Carolina became a major stumbling block to the development of the desegregation laws. In the Briggs v. Elliott (1955) case, the court ruled that the

Constitution does not require integration. It merely forbids discrimination. This was shortened to the slogan "desegregation not integration" (Read, 1975).

Resistance to desegregation occurred throughout the South. An example of this occurred in 1957 when Governor Faubus of Arkansas attempted to block the token desegregation of Central High School in Little Rock. Federal troops had to be assigned at Central for the entire year to protect the eight black students from violence (Read, 1975).

Other factors may have contributed to the slow pace of the desegregation process. Bettelheim (1958) wrote that the launching of the Russian Sputnik I in 1957 had an effect on desegregation. He stated that until that time politicians, educators, and other professionals were at least beginning to talk seriously about the possibility of education on equal terms. The advent of Sputnik I characterized a distinct shift in educational emphasis from the desegregation of schools to the enhancement of learning opportunities for the "gifted child". This occurred to assure that America would not lose ground to the Russians in the field of education.

The early 1960s marked the beginning of the civil rights movement. During this time blacks and whites demonstrated together for the civil rights of all Americans. Resistance to this occurred throughout the South. Governor George Wallace of Alabama stood in the schoolhouse door to block Vivian Malone from enrolling at the University of Alabama (First Plateau: Washington Court Rulings, 1973).

Ten years after the Brown decision, neither the President of the United States nor the United States Congress had aggressively pursued desegregation. But with the increasing protest for civil rights throughout the country, Congress passed the Civil Rights Act of 1964. This was the first nonjudicial action explicitly recognizing school desegregation as governmental policy (Feagin, 1980). Title IV of the Act, along with the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965, increased the amount of federal money available for the nation's public schools--particularly schools in low income areas such as the deep South. School districts could now receive large amounts of federal dollars. Those school districts that did not begin desegregation would lose all of their new federal dollars.

After the passage of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 the amount of desegregation litigation increased almost geometrically (Read, 1975). The United States Court of Appeals for the Fifth Circuit heard the most cases; it found school cases to be unique, in that, unlike the normal appeals case where the appellate decision was generally accepted as final, these were never finished. The same case would be brought back with the demand of greater integration or a new mechanism of delay had to be struck down. The Fifth Circuit Court also found that many of the federal district judges refused to enforce the law relating to desegregation (Read, 1975).

The Fifth Circuit Court began to develop uniform enforcement standards in an attempt to shift the burden of implementation back to the district courts. Between 1965 and 1967 the decisions from four Fifth Circuit Court cases brought about the start of massive

desegregation. These decisions were the logical results of the Fifth Circuit Court's mounting frustration with tokenism and delay toward desegregation by school boards and federal district courts in the name of "deliberate speed." The guidelines established by the United States Department of Health, Education, and Welfare (HEW) were used by the Fifth Circuit Court as standards in dealing with desegregation cases. The guidelines explicitly rejected "free choice" plans that did not eliminate vestiges of the dual school system (Stephan, 1980).

Federal Studies on the Desegregation of Schools

Section 402 of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 reads as follows:

The Commissions shall conduct a survey and make report to the President and the Congress, within two years of the enactment of this title, concerning the lack of availability of equal educational opportunities for individuals by reasons of race, color, religion, or national origin in public educational institutions at all levels in the United States, its territories and possessions and the District of Columbia. (Coleman, 1972, p. 146)

The United States Department of Health, Education and Welfare (HEW) commissioned a group of social scientists and educators to conduct this survey. Six hundred forty-five thousand students and 60,000 teachers from a cross-section of over 4,000 schools from the United States were surveyed during this study (O'Reilly, 1970).

The findings of the commission, Equality of Educational Opportunity Report (EEOR), were presented in 1966. It became known as the "Coleman Report," named after James S. Coleman, the researchers' leader.

The Coleman Report (Coleman et al., 1966) included the following:

In its desegregation decision of 1954, the Supreme Court held that separate schools for Negro and white children are

inherently unequal. This survey finds that, when measured by that yardstick, American public education remains largely unequal in most regions of the country, including all those where Negroes form any significant proportion of the population. (p. 3)

Further major conclusions and/or observations of the social scientists and educators who worked on the EEOR study as they related to the education of blacks fell into four major areas: desegregation and achievement, aspiration and self-concept, relations with other students and teachers, and the role the family plays in the education of students.

The findings of the study dealing with the subject of desegregation and achievement were as follows:

1. The ratio of whites to blacks in a classroom was related to academic achievement of both races. The achievement of students in each racial group increased as the proportion of whites in school increased.
2. This relationship increased as grade in school increased.
3. The higher achievement of all racial groups in schools with greater proportions of white students was related to effects associated not with better facilities or curricula, but to the student body's educational background and aspirations.
4. The average test performance for blacks increased as the proportion of white classmates increased.
5. Those blacks who entered a desegregated school in the early grades showed higher average scores than those blacks who entered a desegregated school in later grades.

On the subject of self-concept and aspiration, it was reported that both black and white students had high self-esteem and that aspiration, interest in school, and "motivation" were high among blacks. The minority students' feelings of control over their environment increased as the proportion of whites in a school increased. But the minority students' self-concept decreased as the proportion of whites in a school increased.

The researchers who worked on the EEOR study arrived at several conclusions on the relationship between minority students and teachers. They concluded the following:

The apparent effect of average teacher characteristics for children in a given group is directly related to the "sensitivity" of the group to the school environment . . . good teachers matter more for children from minority groups which have educationally deficient backgrounds. It suggests as well that for groups whether minority or not, the effect of good teachers is greatest upon the children who suffer most educational disadvantage in their background, and that a given investment in upgrading teacher quality will have the most effect on achievement in underprivileged areas. (Coleman et al., 1966, p. 317).

The results of the EEOR indicated that "the quality of instruction as offered by the classroom teacher had a significant effect, positively or negatively, on pupil learning" (Weinberg, 1970, p. 31).

Concerning the role the family had on student achievement, it was found that a correlation existed between school grades for elementary students and items found in the family home such as books and newspapers. As the student progressed in school, family support appeared to have greater effect on academic achievement than the tangible items mentioned.

In summary, the social scientists and educators who worked on the EEOR reported "that social class integration benefited achievement and that, to a lesser extent, racial desegregation had the same kind of effect" (Weinberg, 1970, p. 292).

Eight months before the EEOR was completed, President Johnson requested the United States Commission on Civil Rights to prepare a report on the status and elimination of racial isolation in the schools inasmuch as "it has become apparent that such isolation presents serious barriers to quality education" (Racial Isolation in the Public Schools, p. v). The report entitled Racial Isolation in the Public Schools (RIPS) was completed in 1967. Thomas F. Pettigrew, a social psychologist from Harvard University, served as chief consultant for the study.

The RIPS "study was concerned with the causes, extent, effects, and remedy of school segregation" (Weinberg, 1970, p. 293). The commission research consisted of five sub-studies including a reanalysis of the desegregation-achievement relationship found in the EEOR. In their conclusions, the RIPS researchers emphasized the role of racial isolation as a major cause of black students' poor classroom achievement and deemphasized the role of socio-economic status as a determinant of school success. This countered the analysis found in the EEOR.

The following are conclusions given in the RIPS concerning the effect of racial isolation on educational-social outcomes:

1. Black students typically do not achieve as well in school as white students; the longer they stay in school, the further they fall behind.

2. A strong relationship exists between achievement and attitudes of a student and his or her family's economic circumstances and educational background.

3. The economic circumstances and educational background of a student's classmate's family strongly influences that student's achievement and attitudes.

4. Blacks are more likely to attend schools that have a majority of the students that are disadvantaged.

5. The schools attended by blacks are of poorer quality than those attended by whites.

6. The quality of instruction has an important influence on the achievement of students. Blacks are more likely to attend schools where the teachers have low verbal achievement and are dissatisfied with their school assignment.

7. Disadvantaged blacks who attend school with other disadvantaged blacks achieve poorer academically and have lower educational aspirations than those disadvantaged whites who attend school with other disadvantaged whites.

8. Black adults who attended desegregated schools tend to have higher incomes than those black adults that attended segregated schools.

The authors of the study concluded that racial segregation in school or in the classroom caused an overall debilitating effect on the educational and social attainment of black students.

Both of these federal studies on the desegregation of schools have received much criticism. Weinberg (1970), in discussing these studies, mentioned criticism of methodology, procedural irregularities, and alleged misunderstanding or misinterpretation of the facts.

Jencks and Brown (1975) conducted a reanalysis of the Coleman Report using a quasi-longitudinal design. They concluded that the racial composition of a high school did not appear to have any appreciable effect on either black or white high school students. The results were not the same for elementary schools; Jencks and Brown found that racial balance may have had modest positive effects on both black and white test scores.

Both studies also were criticized because of the conclusion which implied that in order for black students to learn, white students must be present. Even though both of these reports received criticism, they influenced the educational policy that fostered instant desegregation via massive busing (Jones, 1979).

Significant shifts in the desegregation of black students took place in the late 1960s. Feagin (1980) reported that in 1970, southern schools were more desegregated than northern schools. The following figures, percentages of black students in predominantly white schools, show this was true.

	<u>1968</u>	<u>1970</u>	<u>1972</u>
South	18%	39%	44%
North	28%	28%	29%

By the early 1970s, the movement toward school desegregation had slowed considerably. Several factors may have contributed to this inactivity. The administration of President Nixon reduced pressure on local governments to desegregate. The United States Congress added anti-busing amendments to the fiscal 1976 HEW appropriations bill. The United States Supreme Court began to be less insistent on requiring comprehensive remedies for segregation (Feagin, 1980).

School desegregation began to "threaten" the schools of northern whites and affluent southern whites in the suburbs of larger cities. Many people in those affluent districts felt threatened by the invasion of non-white outsiders to their schools. They feared that the quality of their schools would decline. Thus, middle-class white opposition towards desegregation grew. Many lashed out at "busing" as a major cause of school trouble (Feagin, 1980).

The road to desegregation has been anything but smooth. According to Borman and Hoffman (1968), a desegregated school should serve a number of significant purposes. First, it should improve human relations, whereby differences are not eliminated but understood for what they are. Second, it should help decrease ethnocentrism, whereby one group judges another in terms of its own standards. Third, it should help decrease stereotyping among its students. Fourth, both teachers and students should undergo a transformation in racial attitudes as they begin to see the difference between race and culture (Borman & Hoffman, 1968).

Furthermore, the assumption behind the desegregation of the schools was that it was the first step in the process of providing

minority students access to equal educational opportunities. Feagin (1980) stated that taken as a whole, school desegregation had done little beyond the mixing of black and white children. While the objective of racial balance was near, the movement of schools from segregated to desegregated to integrated was far from complete.

Desegregation-Integration

Though people used the terms desegregation and integration synonymously, these terms were and are not analagous; although they are related, they have different meanings. The United States Supreme Court in Brown I prohibited school segregation and ordered that schools be desegregated. While desegregation may be accomplished by court order, integration cannot. "Integration cannot be mandated by courts because it is a social process and not controlled by the state" (Hughes, Gordon, & Hillman, 1980, p. 12). Understanding the distinctions between segregation, desegregation, and integration is important. School segregation is the separation of students according to race. Lawrence (1980) stated that the purpose of segregation was to "create and maintain a permanent lower class or subcaste defined as race" (p. 51). Segregation kept blacks separate from whites and this separation labeled or classified blacks as inferior beings.

Desegregation places majority and minority students together in the school setting so that they can "learn to coexist with one another, not so that they can learn to read" (Braddock, Crain, & McPartland, 1984, p. 260).

Wilcox (1970), in distinguishing between desegregation and integration, defined desegregation as the

physical mixing of pupils from a variety of ethnic backgrounds within one school without changing the structure and content of the educational program to reflect the presence of different cultural groupings through the provision of systematic opportunities for the sharing of these creative differences. (p. 25)

He further stated that certain characteristics of the desegregated school hindered equal opportunity for minority students as well as the development of self-image. Wilcox gave the following as possible characteristics of these schools:

1. the fulfillment of the self-fulfilling prophecy through lowered teacher expectations and investment;
2. the strengthening of the track system against black youth;
3. the establishment of special guidance classes;
4. the resegregation of such students within classrooms and by classroom;
5. the expanded use of vacant space to prevent further desegregation; and
6. tighter control over the Parent Teacher Association. (p. 25)

Bazeli (1976) described a desegregated school as one which has

1. a student body composed of one dominant racial, ethnic, or socioeconomic group and at least one alienated minority group, with little integration between groups and with legitimate power either being contested for or firmly under the control of the dominant group;
2. a curriculum based on traditional values and objectives of the dominant society and an organizational pattern that segregates the student body at the classroom level;
3. considerable alienation and social distance between cliques of faculty members generally based on divergent philosophical grounds; and
4. an administrative pattern in which open communication is hindered, resulting in an autonomous existence, goalless except for one of self-maintenance.

Rosenberg and Simmons (1971), while discussing the reality of desegregation, explained that racial isolation protected the lower-class black child from realizing his or her low social status, low academic status, and low racial status. While desegregation stripped the first two defenses from the black child, it exposed him or her to awareness of prejudice against his or her race. Also, desegregation in many schools resulted in the physical placement of blacks and whites under one school roof. Often, except for token numbers, they were still segregated physically and by status. "In this situation of resegregation, black students feel they have lost their own school and gained nothing. White students resent the intrusion of outsiders when black students move into their building and take over" (Turnage, 1972, p. 43).

Wilcox (1970) defined integration as

the sharing of a mutually self-reaffirming educational experience by students from a variety of ethnic, religious, social and economic backgrounds. It embodies curriculum modification, changes in school organization, a re-distribution of decision making roles and a confrontation of the track system. Designed to enable students to learn to establish co-equal relationships and to understand the true nature of the society, it focuses its attention on enabling students to acquire the skills, insight, and knowledge to participate in solving their own problems and those of the society of which they are a part. (p. 25)

In an integrated school setting, blacks would be expected to provide leadership for students of all races, whereas, in a desegregated school setting, they often would be expected to serve as advocates against their own race.

In an integrated school, the black student would derive a profound sense of equality, security, and power from his or her school

experience. As stated previously, in a desegregated school a black student often feels that he or she is treated as a second class citizen and is threatened by the competition of white students. He or she may feel that the only way he or she can achieve equality and power is by fighting for it. As a consequence, the school becomes a battleground; learning declines and hostility increases (Killian, 1972, p. 6).

Pettigrew (1967) summed up the concept of integration in stating that it

involves individual and group attitude changes (e.g., the removal of fears, hatreds, suspicions, and stereotypes) and is engendered by living with other racial and ethnic groups in an atmosphere of mutual respect and understanding. With integration, every person receives a sincere invitation to swim in the main-stream of American life. This is the essence of democracy--and developing the democratic citizen is the main job of the school. We see, therefore, that desegregation is educationally valuable as the first step toward integration. The logical corollary is: the educator must not be content with mere desegregation. (p.3)

As previously stated, many people use the terms desegregation and integration synonymously. Because of this, many of the authors who completed the studies examined in this review discussed desegregation while describing the characteristics of integration.

Role of the School Administrator in the Desegregation- Integration Process

Most people agree that the school based administrator plays a very important role in the success of a school moving toward integration (Forehand & Ragosta, 1976). "The principal occupies the most appropriate position in the administrative hierarchy to be the change agent for the individual school in the desegregation/integration process" (Turnage, 1972, p. 43). She or he can create a collaborative

climate of conflict-resolution leading to integration or she or he can create a situation of resegregation leading to conflict or apathy.

St. John (1975) stressed the need for administrative leadership in the integration process. She stated that the principal must be "committed to making positive changes, actively selecting and training a school staff to be competent in interracial instruction, and working vigorously to structure a positive interracial climate within the school" (Chesler, Crawfoot, & Bryant, 1978, p. 192).

Forehand and Ragosta (1976) listed several ways that a principal can help to facilitate school integration. These are to

1. help organize staff resources in ways that build an instructional team devoid of competition and racial bickering and characterized instead by the sharing of competencies, the supporting of new ideas, and the promotion of positive interaction;
2. act as a professional leader to provide feedback to teachers, consult on the development of new pedagogy, reward innovative classroom efforts, and invite or require staff participation in school leadership functions;
3. be a direct and indirect teacher of students, both as an instructor and as a model of concerned and fair-minded educational authority;
4. assist the school staff in establishing effective communication with, and accountability to, parents and other community members;
5. help organize the community in support of desegregation and in support of new student, staff, and parent programs to increase the effectiveness of desegregation; and
6. act as an agent of change in the larger community and in the upper echelons of the school system, protecting local innovation and promoting changes throughout the system. (p. 57)

Sizemore, Brossard, and Harrigan (1983) conducted an ethnography of three high achieving predominantly black elementary schools, located in Pittsburg, during the 1979-1980 school year. They spent more than a thousand hours in these three schools observing classrooms, halls,

lunchrooms, and playgrounds. They found that the most important routines carried out by the principal in these schools were

1. the assumption of responsibility for all student attendance, discipline, and parental conflict;
 2. the publication of school rules and the prompt enforcement of these rules;
 3. close supervision of teacher and staff including daily classroom and program visitations;
 4. supervision of instruction directed toward mastery of student's reading and mathematic skills;
 5. willingness to use teachers and staff in solutions to school concerns and dilemmas;
 6. the involvement of parents in school programs;
 7. fair and just evaluation of teacher and staff performances;
- and
8. expanding the school day for tutoring individual and small group instruction for students who need reinforcement and reteaching of basic skills.

The success of a school becoming integrated depended largely on the leadership role taken by the principal (Forehand, 1976).

The Curriculum of an Integrated School

Saylor and Alexander (1974) defined curriculum as "a plan for providing sets of learning opportunities to achieve broad goals and related specific objectives for an identifiable population served by a single school system" (p. 76). Boyer and Hill (1973) criticized most schools because the curricula in these schools were found to be

mono-cultural, mono-racial, and mono-ethnic. They suggested that curricula which placed total emphasis on the traditional skills of reading, writing, and arithmetic were inadequate. "Human relations skills and the development of the ability to relate functionally to other people who may be racially or ethnically different must become major components of the desegregated curriculum" (p. 759). Students needed to be taught about the accomplishments of outstanding blacks, Hispanics, and other minorities whose contributions helped to form America. A desegregated curriculum could help to decrease alienation, decrease pressure, and increase achievement of its students (Boyer & Hill, 1973).

High school students enrolled in college-preparatory classes had "clear advantages in academic achievement, self-concept, college attendance, and occupational aspirations, even after ability is taken into account" (Epstein, 1985, p. 24). The number of black high school students enrolled in college preparatory classes has been disproportionately low (Johnson, 1984). Johnson (1984) reported an example of this occurrence when he found that black students enrolled in fewer advanced mathematic courses than whites. He gave the following reasons for this happening:

1. an absence of role models;
2. a lack of significant others, such as parents who have an interest in mathematical achievement;
3. a failure to receive positive career counseling;
4. a view of mathematics as a subject appropriate for white males;
5. an inability to see the usefulness and relevance of mathematics to their lives, both present and future; and
6. a lack of success in previous mathematics courses. (p. 149)

A major goal of any curriculum in a desegregated school was believed to be the improvement of intergroup relations (Curet, 1976). Extracurricular and informal student activities could play an important role in intergroup relations. These activities provide opportunities for students of various social and cultural backgrounds to associate in pursuit of common goals. Goals of these activities should include experiences for the participants to develop social skills, leadership skills, and act as the motivation for good academic performance. In some schools, minority students were not provided an opportunity to participate. The reasons given for this lack of opportunity varied from majority student control, to the time when students participate in activities. Because of the important role that extracurricular activities played in the total school experience, Curet (1976) commented that school administrators should give them serious attention. While assessing an activities program, administrators, he said, should ask these questions:

1. Does the program meet the social needs and interests of all students?
2. Are student groups actively participating in proportion to their percentage in the student body?
3. Has each activity taken specific steps to make all students feel welcome?
4. When students of different races and cultural backgrounds participate in an activity, is the atmosphere friendly rather than just tolerant?
5. When a disproportionate number of students of one race participate in an activity, do they segregate themselves and avoid association with other groups?
6. Are there activities with financial and dress requirements which exclude students of a lower socioeconomic group?
7. Are the membership requirements for any group or activity based on race, religion, or nationality?
8. Are leadership positions in clubs and activities shared by students of all racial cultural groups? (p. 43)

Role of Teachers in the Desegregation-Integration Process

What role do teachers play in helping a desegregated school move toward integration? This was addressed by the Laboratory School-Teacher Education Project, a cooperative effort between the University of California in Riverside and the Riverside Unified School District (Deslonde, 1972).

The teachers of these two schools identified six desegregation problems and the factors which contributed to them. These were as follows:

1. Resegregation--This had occurred within the schools through several avenues: "achievement and ability grouping, flexible scheduling, pupil friendship patterns, ineffective teaching strategies, after school activities, busing, dual standards of discipline, and insensitivity to student needs" (Deslonde, 1972, p. 49).

2. Grading--This was due to maintainance of single academic achievement levels, ineffective progress reporting, lack of effective educational and social goals for the classroom, and the policy of socially promoting children.

3. Communication--The teachers had a "tread softly" attitude and feared reprisals from the administration for innovative "race-oriented" efforts. Teachers also feared over reaction from minority parents. There was no recognition for faculty leadership and a lack of professional unity among teachers.

4. Discipline--Teachers felt that there was no unified enforcement of school rules and a lack of administrative support. They

also identified an element of insensitivity of teacher to student behavior needs.

5. Integration-Pluralism Goals--These goals were "difficult to plan for and achieve because there is a high degree of regimentation of the school's function through state-and-district mandated policies. These policies generally focused on the achievement of youngsters and tend to ignore the affective or the human component of the school" (Deslonde, 1972, p. 48).

6. Community Polarity--The parents of the bused minority students rarely communicated with the parents of the non-bused majority group.

Solutions to these problems were suggested. They included minimum use of achievement and ability grouping, use of multi-ethnic curricula materials, planning and implementation of classroom activities to promote human as well as intellectual growth, increasing dialogue between administration and faculty about school desegregation problems, equitable standards of discipline, and rotation of PTA meeting places.

The Laboratory School-Teacher Education Project researchers concluded from their study that certain conditions for change found within a school assist that school in becoming integrated. These were as follows:

1. There must be the presence of initiators, negotiators and consolidators among the faculty who are willing to risk disfavor to bring about change. Often the change must be rationalized in terms of race or cultural awareness.
2. Among the majority of faculty members there must be an acceptance of diverse non-white characteristics as desirable or at least irrelevant to academic achievement.
3. There must be a willingness to alter school programs and curricula in the direction of students to take increasing

responsibility for his education often in the absence of support from family, church, and community.

4. The presence of administrators and/or faculty members who can anticipate and constructively use points of conflict which inevitably arise as a system changes. (Deslonde, 1972, p. 50)

Braxton and Bullock (1972) examined the effect of teacher partiality in the desegregation-integration process. They conducted a study on the expectations of teachers and students concerning whether teachers would treat students of the other race fairly. Questionnaires were administered to both white and black eleventh grade students and teachers from two school districts in Georgia. This was done prior to the districts' transition from segregation to desegregation. After eight months of desegregation the same individuals were reinterviewed.

About 60% of the black and 52% of the white students anticipated that they would be treated impartially by teachers of the other race. Among teachers, a greater difference between races occurred, with 65% of the black and 93% of the white teachers believing that they could be impartial to students of the other race.

After eight months of desegregation, 27% of the white students and 52% of the black students felt that they were treated impartially. Also, 86% of the white students and 57% of the black students stated that they were allowed to participate equally in class.

In their second set of interviews with the teachers, the researchers did not ask if they had treated students of the other race impartially, but whether they had experienced an increase in discipline problems following desegregation. None of the black high school teachers reported having more discipline problems, yet, 25% of the white high school teachers complained that they suffered more

discipline problems than previously. In each case they stated that the black students were the cause of these problems. The researchers concluded that white teachers found the desegregation transition more difficult than the black faculty members. They also concluded that the experience of desegregation left both white teachers and students negative about desegregation.

Before desegregation "black schools were for all intent and purposes black-controlled, controlled in the sense that they were administered by black principals, staffed by black teachers, and served a black population" (Irvine & Irvine, 1983). Critics have suggested that a negative side effect of the desegregation of schools has been a decreased number of blacks in school leadership roles (Irvine & Irvine, 1983). Picott (1976) revealed that the number of black principals in the southern United States dropped from over 2,000 in 1964 to less than 200 by 1973.

The racial composition of the teaching staff changed dramatically in many school districts as a result of court ordered desegregation mandates (Bruno & Doscher, 1981). Teachers who were either new to the school district or had little seniority were often transferred to predominantly black schools as part of a school district's desegregation plan. Bruno and Doscher (1981) studied these teachers in a southern school district and found that these teachers perceived their new schools as undesirable places to work. The researchers also found that these teachers served their required time and requested transfers, as soon as they became eligible, to schools that had a predominantly white student population. The net effect was that the best teachers were

chosen by the requested schools, leaving less qualified teachers at predominantly black schools (Bruno & Doscher, 1981).

According to Brophy and Good (1970), teacher perceptions and expectations for student success are related to student achievement outcomes. They conducted a study of dyadic contacts between teachers and individual students in four first grade classrooms in a Texas school district. As a result of their research they confirmed the "hypothesis that teachers' expectations of individual student performance function as self-fulfilling prophecies" (p. 373).

Beady and Hansell (1981) analyzed surveys of 129 black teachers and 312 white teachers who taught in 60 different elementary schools in Michigan. The purpose of their study was to "examine expectations for future student success and perceptions of current student achievement and effort held by black and white teachers in predominantly black and white schools" (p. 192). From the results of their study they concluded that teacher race was strongly associated with expectations for students' future success in college. White teachers had significantly lower expectations for their students than black teachers in both low and high achieving black schools.

Epstein (1985) examined teacher characteristics that influenced them to group students in their classrooms. This, in effect, often led to resegregation in desegregated schools (Epstein, 1985). She examined data collected during a 1974 Educational Testing Service study of conditions and practices of effective school desegregation. Data from 5,284 students in fifth grade in 94 elementary schools and 886 teachers in those same schools were analyzed. Epstein concluded that those

teachers who had positive attitudes toward integration used instructional programs that were of an equal-status nature. While those teachers who had negative attitudes toward integration used instructional programs that were of a tracking or within-class ability grouping nature. She found no evidence that "the achievement of black students in elementary schools was aided by resegregating populations" (p. 40).

Sanders (1984) studied what effect mandatory faculty desegregation had on student achievement in the Houston school district during the 1976-1977 school year. His population sample included 1,447 fourth, fifth, and sixth grade students and their teachers. He examined student achievement growth as measured by the Iowa Test of Basic Skills. Three teacher factors were examined: if the teacher was racially isolated, the number of years teaching experience, and if the teacher was involuntarily transferred to his or her present school. As a result his research, Sanders made the following conclusions:

1. achievement among black students was negatively related to the extent to which their teachers were racially isolated;
2. achievement was lower for black students assigned to teachers who were involuntarily transferred for faculty desegregation purposes; and
3. the achievement of black, Hispanic, and white students was positively related to faculty turnover. (p. 605)

Pettigrew (1967) stated that desegregation had failed to yield the goal of integration primarily because "integration involves, in addition to racial mix, a climate of inter-racial acceptance" (p. 73). When white teachers are prejudiced and have learned to accept the countless myths associated with being black, "they are not likely to provide black children with the kind of teacher behavior which is

necessary for developing a positive self-image" (Virage, 1973, p. 12). White teachers, he said, who are free of prejudice and possess positive attitudes toward members of another race can enhance black student self-image. Because of this, according to Virage, school systems and teacher educational institutions have a responsibility to develop positive intergroup attitudes within prospective and inservice teachers.

School integration was enhanced when faculty members accepted responsibility for making it successful (Konnert, 1986).

The Desegregated-Integrated School and the Community

The community where a school was located was an important influence on the success or failure of that school moving towards integration. Areas where the community was supportive of the public schools had often been successful in reaching integration. Communities where leadership was negative or reactionary tended to complicate the process of racial integration. The burden of developing desegregation-integration policies in the school often was placed on the shoulders of the principal. How successfully he or she worked with the community was dependent on how successfully he or she had worked with established community groups.

Bash and Long (1968) surveyed principals to determine which community groups were the most helpful in the desegregation process. Most principals felt that parents and parent-teacher associations gave the most help. Civic organizations, the news media, and community status leaders were mentioned as the next most helpful (p. 59).

The role the community groups played in minority schools was explained by Bell (1980). He stated that "It is the conventional wisdom in this country that any public school whose student population is all or mainly black is presumably a poor school" (p. 125). Yet in some "all black" schools, students achieved and maintained high academic performances. Bell maintained that these successful black schools need not be isolated phenomena.

But what of those black schools that were poor institutions for learning? What could be done to improve those schools? Bell proposed a plan that, if followed, would help a school district achieve the performance that unusually talented and committed teachers and administrators had exhibited in high achieving black schools. This plan involved the community and contained the following steps:

1. Public hearings to obtain minority civic and community groups' reactions to school board policies.

2. The formation of a desegregation plan committee made up of representatives of various racial backgrounds.

3. Examination of the schools in the district to seek answers to the following questions:

- a. Did the school board approve and maintain teacher and administrative personnel assignment policies after they knew that such policies would result in the migration of the most experienced and capable teachers from black to white schools with a concurrent loss of teacher effectiveness in black schools?

- b. What changes in principals or other supervisory personnel have been made to overcome the achievement gap between black and white schools?

- c. What special efforts have been made with reading and math programs specifically designed for poor, black children; or if minority children come from non-English speaking families, are appropriate bilingual and bicultural programs in use?

- d. Are educational programs designed to ensure the involvement of minority parents in both school policymaking and in the ongoing education of their children?
- e. Are course offerings in mainly black schools equal in number and quality to those offered in white schools, and are the course offerings in black schools specifically designed to meet the educational need of black students?
- f. Are measures of achievement, including standards for failure, promotion, and graduation fair as applied to black and other minority children?
- g. Does the school system designate a disproportionate number of black and other minority children as educationally handicapped and, if so, what is the effectiveness of programs prescribed for such children?
- h. Does the school system discipline through corporal punishment, suspensions, and expulsions a percentage of black and other minority children higher than the percentage of majority children in the public schools?
- i. Is the percentage of students who drop out or otherwise fail to graduate from the system's mainly black schools higher than the percentage of nongraduates from mainly white schools?
- j. Are state and local expenditures at schools serving mainly black and other minority children at least equal to expenditures at schools of similar size serving mainly white children? (Bell, 1980, p.48)

Chesler et al. (1978) suggested that schools form multi-racial coalitions or advisory boards that could help to develop and mobilize community support for local school desegregation. Members of the coalition would consist of representatives from the business community, parents, churches, and clubs. This coalition could help organize and accomplish events such as

- 1. speakers' bureaus which could send informed people to local clubs and schools to explain the desegregation plan and the need for peaceful cooperation;
 - 2. community forums where representatives of various groups could present their views on elements of a good desegregation plan;
 - 3. telephone "hotlines" or rumor clinics;
 - 4. media coordination and the placement of positive stories about desegregation; and
 - 5. mobilization of resources for special school programs.
- (p. 183)

The involvement of local community members and leaders in the school program of desegregation-integration was believed to be very important. The U. S. Commission on Civil Rights reported that in cities where community leaders supported desegregation, there were fewer reports of disorder and violence (Chesler et al., 1978).

The desegregation of a school district can have dramatic effects on parental involvement in the schools. In 1972, the Norfolk, Virginia, school district was ordered by the Fourth Circuit Court to desegregate. The school board chose cross-town busing as a remedy to this order and by 1975 the district court dismissed the desegregation suit and declared the Norfolk public school a racially unitary system. Two outcomes of this desegregation action taken by the school board were a white flight from attending public schools and a decreased parent involvement in the schools. Parent Teacher Association membership declined from between 15,000 and 20,000 in 1975 to only 3,500 in 1983 (Sendor, 1987).

Desegregation Consequences for Children

What are the effects of desegregation on the children involved? What are the academic consequences of desegregation? Two studies conducted by federal agencies on this subject have already been discussed, Equality of Educational Opportunity Report (Coleman Report) and Racial Isolation in the Public Schools.

McPartland (1967) examined the effect of classroom and school desegregation on academic achievement. He analyzed raw data originally gathered for the Coleman Report. These data consisted of verbal achievement test scores derived from 5,075 black ninth graders in New

England and the Middle Atlantic states. He derived the following results:

1. Racial classroom composition has a positive effect on achievement, and this influence is for the most part independent of family background.

2. The average achievement of black students increases when the proportion of their classmates who are white increases.

3. Blacks at desegregated schools who attend classes which have a population consisting of a majority of black students receive no benefit in terms of their academic growth.

St. John (1975) studied 1,388 black ninth graders in 8 of the 21 secondary schools in Pittsburg. She calculated the average percentage of white students and the average social class level of the schools they attended in grades 1 through 8. Their performance on the Metropolitan Achievement Test was compared with the percentage of white performance in grades 1 through 8 for each student. She controlled for sex and both student and school social and economic status. St. John found that desegregation apparently encouraged skill in arithmetic but not in other subjects.

Edmonds and Frederickson (1978) analyzed city schools that were instructionally effective for poor and/or minority children. Their thesis was that all children are eminently educable, and that the behavior in the school is critical in determining the quality of education. Their research consisted of two parts. First, they examined student performance in 20 elementary schools which were located in inner-city Detroit and served a predominantly poor and

minority pupil population. Reading and math scores were analyzed from Detroit's spring 1973, use of the Stanford Achievement Test and the Iowa Test of Basic Skills. An effective school was defined as being at or above the city average grade equivalent in math and reading and an ineffective school was defined as below the city average. Using these criteria, 9 of the 20 schools were judged effective in teaching reading, 8 were judged effective in teaching math, and 5 were judged effective in teaching both math and reading.

The second part of their research was a reanalysis of the 1966 Equality of Educational Opportunity Report data conducted by Frederickson (1975). They expanded their search for identifying instructionally effective schools for the poor by examining the effects of schools on children having different social backgrounds.

From their research, Edmonds and Frederickson (1978) identified the following as characteristics of effective schools for poor and/or minority students:

1. Strong administrative leadership.
2. A climate of expectation in which no children are permitted to fall below minimum but efficacious level of achievement.
3. A school atmosphere that is orderly without being rigid, quiet without being oppressive, and generally conducive to the instructional business at hand.
4. A school philosophy that pupil acquisition of basic school skills takes precedence over all other school activities.

5. There were some means by which pupil progress was frequently monitored. The principal and the teachers remain constantly aware of pupil progress in relationship to instructional objectives.

There have been critics to some of the research dealing with desegregation and effective schools. Some problems cited by critics of this research were that measures of effectiveness were unreliable and invalid because they focused only on results students obtained on standardized achievement tests and ignored school goals. Further criticism cited that researchers used a contrasted group design which provided little information about the causal relationships among variables (Rowan, Bossert, & Dwyer, 1983).

Edmonds and Frederickson (1978) stated that desegregation alone had little effect on pupil performance. He cited three reasons for the disappointing achievement scores of blacks:

First, our present failure to offer adequate basic education to children of color is compounded by issues of class. Analysis of achievement that focuses on race, to the exclusion of class, misses the true impact of the educational tragedy that presently characterizes schooling for most black children.

Second, no amount of desegregation will deliver us from our present educational malaise till we change the prevailing public perspective on the interaction between pupil performance and pupil race and family background. We cannot do that unless we confront the profound error that is inherent in most educational research on the origin of achievement.

Third, we must gain an understanding of how poor children of color are even now being properly educated in a number of public schools, and then ask the question: If this is so anywhere, then why not make it so everywhere? (p. 119)

As cited in Lewis (1985), Robert Crain of Johns Hopkins University conducted a study and concluded that "black students who attended integrated schools were more likely to have completed high school, less

likely to have been in trouble with the law, more likely to hold white-collar jobs and live in integrated housing as adults" (p. 179).

As reported in "Desegregation Natures Academic and Career Aspirations" (1986), Braddock, a sociologist from Johns Hopkins University, examined the United States Education Department's High School and Beyond survey of 3,000 students attending two-year colleges, and found that "desegregated high schools encourage black students to pursue careers in such areas as science and technology, areas not traditionally associated with minorities" (p. 337). He found that blacks who graduated from high schools that had a majority population of blacks were less likely to major in a scientific or technical field than blacks who graduated from high schools that had a majority population of whites.

St. John (1975) reviewed more than 120 studies which examined the relation of school social composition and achievement, attitudes, and behavior of children. Her review resulted in six educational conditions under which desegregation is likely to have the most beneficial and least harmful outcomes for children. These conditions were as follows:

1. Desegregation, as a symbol of equality affirmed and powerlessness denied, should increase black sense of control and white appreciation of democracy, provided it is achieved through individual or community self-determination and is freely chosen by the families involved, and provided black parents share in the control of school policies.
2. Desegregation should reduce stigma and enhance the self-esteem of black pupils provided that they attend a school of higher status and provided they are not placed in low status programs or classes in the new school.
3. Desegregation, by reducing sense of deprivation relative to pupils in other schools, should raise the morale of black pupils, provided they do not feel deprived in the new school.

4. Desegregation may raise the expectations of significant others and so the motivation of black pupils, provided such expectations are from staff as well as parents, for those whose initial performance is low as black students alike.
5. Desegregation brings association with peers from whom favorable norms may be acquired, provided racial desegregation means social class desegregation and does not result in official or unofficial within-school segregation.
6. Desegregation brings interracial contact which may reduce prejudice, provided it is continued over a number of years, it is equal status and noncompetitive, and the school administration offers firm leadership. (p. 107)

St. John also concluded that three problems may arise from desegregation. These were as follows:

1. Desegregation inevitably places some pupils in a minority group situation which may induce anxiety, unless both tokenism and rapid influx is avoided and unless the staff is firm and skillful in protecting whichever race is in the minority.
2. Desegregation exposes minority group students to cultural marginality and confusion as to their own identity, unless the curriculum recognizes the minority group culture, and unless there is opportunity for choice between assimilation and pluralism.
3. Desegregation allows self-evaluation against academic standards that may in some cases discourage motivation, unless help is available, competition is avoided, and instruction and evaluation are individualized. (p. 108)

Bradley and Bradley (1977) conducted an analysis of the research literature dealing with school desegregation and student achievement. They concluded that those studies that showed school desegregation was beneficial to black student achievement suffered as a whole "from methodological deficiencies that weakened the validity of their findings" (p. 443). Those studies that showed little student achievement gain as a result of desegregation "lacked an adequate control group and suffered from other severe methodological deficiencies" (p. 443). In conclusion, Bradley and Bradley stated that

nothing definitive could be said about the effect of desegregation on black student achievement.

In 1982, the National Institute of Education commissioned seven leading research scholars familiar with the desegregation of schools to examine existing desegregation research to give further insight into the disagreements between recognized experts as to the effect of school desegregation on black student achievement. The panel was comprised of

two social scientists who had concluded from their studies that desegregation had positive effects on black achievement, two who had concluded that it had negative effects, and two who concluded that the effects were neutral, with the seventh as a kind of methodological policeman. (Ascik, 1984, p. 17)

The panel had three tasks: to meet to establish what criteria would be used to determine if a research study would be considered for review, to apply these criteria to the body of desegregation research in order to screen out methodologically deficient studies, and to examine those remaining studies and arrive at a conclusion about the effects of desegregation on black student achievement. A total of 157 studies were analyzed, and of those 157 studies only 19 met the criterion of acceptance for examination by the panel. The final conclusion of the panel was that "desegregation had small positive effects on black student achievement in reading and no effects on black achievement in mathematics" (p. 19).

Discipline and School Integration

According to the "18th Annual Gallup Poll of the Public's Attitudes Toward the Public Schools" (Gallup, 1986), discipline was considered the number two problem facing local public schools. Use of drugs was identified as the most important problem facing the public

schools. In 16 of the 17 previous polls, discipline was rated the most important problem facing the public schools (Gallup, 1986).

The Gallup poll did not focus on the racial desegregation factor as applied to student behavior, yet many principals felt that maintaining proper student behavior had become more complicated since desegregation (Bash & Long, 1968).

Vredevoe (1967) conducted a study to determine the effects of desegregation upon school disciplining using personal interviews with "two hundred fifty-seven school administrators, eighteen hundred students, nine hundred parents, lay leaders, school board officials, and community agents" (p. 1). The following is a compendium of observations and conclusions drawn from the study.

1. Both minority and majority race students experienced confusion, frustration, and insecurity in a newly desegregated school. These students often felt the desire to strike at something or somebody. This led to anti-social behavior.

2. Students, who became minority students when transferred to a predominantly one-race school, felt resented and unwanted. Often they believed that they were nothing more than "pawns" in the resolution of a social problem. These students exhibited negative behavior in the school environment.

3. A student's home conditions may be reflected in a positive, as well as a negative attitude toward school. An unhappy home environment did not always correlate with negative student behavior.

4. Good student behavior could be attributed to the existence of a competent teaching and administrative staff.

5. Often discipline problems arose as a result of conflict, not between races, but between groups of students within a single race.

6. There was a tendency to assign incompetent and/or inexperienced teachers and administrators to desegregated schools. This often resulted in poor student behavior in the school.

7. Those "teachers and administrators who knew what they were teaching, how to teach it, and how to motivate students had the best pattern of discipline in their schools" (p. 5).

In summary, Vredevoe's main conclusion was that

desegregation may or may not result in poorer discipline in the school. The competence of the teaching staff, their attitude and interest in minority groups, the mental climate in which the student is working and studying, the challenge and motivation of the program are the major factors. (p. 5)

Lively and Gallagher (1987) found, in two Florida school districts from 1981 to 1986, that black students who violated school rules were suspended and expelled at a rate about twice that of whites.

The Integrated School

Kimball and Wagley (1974) studied the consequences which occurred following the desegregation of two high schools in Florida observing classroom, extracurricular, and friendship behavior in these two schools. The following results of their study typify the desegregated, but not integrated, school:

1. White and black students voluntarily clustered with students of their own race. Some areas of the school facility which are not used for academic purposes, such as hallways and grounds around the

buildings, "have been converted into exclusive racial territory" (p. 81). Areas in classrooms, the cafeteria, and the library where free choice seating occurs, almost always reflected self-imposed racial separation.

2. While membership in extracurricular activities was observed to be along racial lines, those activities that were task oriented tended to show no racial line membership. Rather, membership was determined by the quality of the contribution the individual could make to the group.

3. Almost all students, both white and black, belonged to cliques or informal groups. Membership in these cliques was observed along age, sex, and racial lines.

4. The separation of students by race was paralleled in the community where they lived. There was little racial mixing between parents along association membership or residential clustering.

Forehand (1976) conducted a study to find characteristics that distinguished between schools which were more effective and less effective in achieving positive results of desegregation. For the purpose of this study, effectiveness was defined by means of student achievement and race relations. Forehand collected data from 168 elementary and high schools. All fifth and tenth grade students took a 50-minute achievement test and completed a questionnaire containing questions regarding personal attitudes, background, and descriptions of the school. Principals and teachers completed a questionnaire designed to measure racial attitudes, support for integration, teaching style, and multi-racial teaching practices. From these data, the researchers

tried to find school conditions that showed promise as components of a program to improve the progress of integration.

The results of this study fell in two categories: relationships involving student socioeconomic status (SES) and relationships between school characteristics and student outcomes independent of background.

From the collected data the researchers found that schools which had black students with low SES scores tended to have negative teacher racial attitudes, an absence of teaching practices related to race relations, a perception by teachers of differences between black and white students, and a lack of support for integration. The "results indicated that students who were both poor and black were in double jeopardy. Not only were racial attitudes poorer in schools with low SES black students, but the practices which might help to change those attitudes existed to a lesser degree" (p. 16).

School conditions that account for achievement scores when background conditions were statistically controlled were not found. Yet, conditions which predicted how positive the race relations in a school will be, were found. These included the following:

1. Teaching and school activities designed to promote bi-racial association and support.
2. A positive evaluation by teachers of high school principals.
3. Positive racial attitudes of teachers, which are reported by teachers themselves and perceived by students.
4. Support for integration which is shared and perceived by teachers, administrators, and students.
5. Absence of conflict issues and other social and educational concerns. (p. 17)

Forehand (1976) stated the following conclusions as a result of his study:

1. There were some school conditions that were systematically related to favorable outcomes of integrated schooling, particularly to good race relations, over a wide range of socioeconomic, demographic, and geographic conditions.

2. Some of the conditions associated with successful integration were under the control of school personnel.

3. While school conditions had varying effects on different student outcomes, the findings are not plagued by the contradictions and incongruencies often found when many outcomes must be considered simultaneously.

4. Actions that might be taken to improve race relations were compatible with actions to improve achievement.

5. Conditions conducive to favorable attitudes of white students were consistent with those conducive to favorable attitudes of black students.

6. It was possible to build a program of simultaneous activities to improve a wide range of components of effective integration, with reasonable hope of success.

Bazeli (1976) offered a plan for integrating the desegregated school. He stated that an integrated school should have faculty cohesion. A school faculty could be helped to reach cohesion if the typical bureaucratic administrative structure changed to one that acted as an executive of faculty and students policy decisions.

An integrated school should gain the reputation as a training center for education leaders. There should be involvement from the faculty in "instructional research and innovation projects, curriculum

development, professional writing, and the supervision of clinical experiences for preservice professional education students" (Bazeli, 1976, p.82).

When one race of students was in the majority at a school, often they dominated the social system, set the intellectual climate, and the dress, value, and behavioral codes causing the minority students to become alienated. Many times they clustered together at specified locations of the schools and made curricular and extracurricular decisions not individually, but by group preference. This can develop a separate social system within the school and lead to little interaction between racial groups. Bazeli suggested that a school should not try to destroy these informal student subgroup organizations, but should "legitimize their existence, with clearly spelled out rights of territory and access to facilities when necessary" (p. 83). The minority student groups should be encouraged to become involved in the school newspaper, daily intercom broadcasts, bulletin boards, assemblies, and student council meetings. The curriculum of the school should work towards multi-cultural recognition.

Often schools maintained certain organizational patterns which hindered overall student body cohesion and integration. Bazeli (1976) identified the practice of schools using tracking systems which were "based upon ability grouping or career-oriented curriculum aimed at separating college bound from non-college bound students" (p. 83). Schools often resegregated students when they put students into ability groups. This defeats one of the major purposes behind integrating the

schools which was the placement of educationally disadvantaged students into enriched learning environments.

Bazeli further suggested that a school offer activity periods during the middle of the day. He stated that this would increase minority involvement in extracurricular activities and help minority and majority students share an educational experience.

Genova and Walberg (1979) conducted a study to identify school controlled characteristics of urban desegregated high schools that were related to student integration. They examined existing research and found six school practices related to positive race relations. In addition to these 6 school practices they found 13 school climate factors which were related to the quality of student integration. They developed a questionnaire for students that revealed the students' attitudes on the 19 school practices and climate factors of positive integration.

Brezner (1974) researched the relationship between recommended administrative practices and procedures used in desegregated secondary schools to achieve integration and the quality of integration in these schools. As part of his study he devised an instrument entitled The Survey of Administrative Practices and Procedures Utilized to Achieve Integration. This was developed as a result of "recommendations in the literature by educators familiar with the desegregation-integration continuum, and through interviews with selected practicing educational administrators involved in the desegregation process" (p. 62). A panel of experts reviewed his survey for content validation.

Brezner then surveyed all the high school principals in a southeastern school district to determine the relationship between "principals' perceptions of the degree to which selected administrative practices and procedures were implemented in desegregated secondary schools and the degree of integration of those secondary schools as measured by the PRIME-Secondary Student Questionnaire" (p. 52).

Brezner examined principals' and students' perceptions of the totality of integration in their particular schools. While the information gained from this study was valuable, there was a need for the development of a process for evaluating a school's strengths and weaknesses in integration without using only attitudinal surveys. It would be of value for a school leader to be able to examine a secondary school's status on various sensitive indicators of integration by examining behaviors and actions exhibited in the school, which was the intention of this study.

Process for Test Construction

Crocker and Algina (1986) proposed a systematic 10 step procedure for test developers to follow "to ensure that test scores will have the essential technical qualities to serve as useful measurements" (p. 67). This 10 step process was as follows:

1. Identify the primary purpose(s) for which the test scores will be used
2. Identify behaviors that represent the construct or define the domain
3. Prepare a set of test specifications, delineating the proportion of items that should focus on each type of behavior identified in step 2
4. Construct an initial pool of items
5. Have items reviewed (and revise as necessary)
6. Hold preliminary item tryouts (and revise as necessary)

7. Field-test the items on a large sample representative of the examinee population for whom the test is intended
8. Determine statistical properties of item scores and, when appropriate, eliminate items that do not meet preestablished criteria
9. Design and conduct reliability and validity studies for the final form of the test
10. Develop guidelines for administration, scoring, and interpretation of the test scores (e.g., prepare norm tables, suggest recommended cutting scores or standards for performance, etc.). (p66)

Summary

The desegregation of America's schools had been a controversial social issue for many years. The formal education of blacks and other minorities in America had not always been provided by state or federal governments. After the Civil War, the federal government established the Freedman's Bureau which created some 4,300 schools for blacks.

School segregation was practiced throughout the country. Challenges toward this segregation were made, but, a United States Supreme Court's decision established the doctrine of "separate but equal" education. For many years, schools remained segregated. The schooling for the education of non-whites remained "separated" but were not "equal."

In its decision on Brown v. Board of Education, 1954, the United States Supreme Court ruled that racial segregation was unlawful in the public sector. Resistance toward segregation occurred. After many years of legal and social struggles, the desegregation of schools had been primarily achieved.

While meeting the goal of desegregation was a major accomplishment, it served as only one step toward obtaining the social climate that needed to exist in a school, that of integration.

Desegregation, the physical mixing of various racial groups into the same school setting, did not guarantee that integration would follow. Integration is the social climate that exists in a school that demonstrates students, educators, and parents of various racial groups are working together in equal status relations.

It was found the school administrator can play an important role in the success of a school moving toward integration. He/she can create a collaborative climate of conflict-resolution leading to integration or he/she can create a situation of resegregation leading to conflict or apathy.

The curriculum in a school needed to avoid being mono-cultural, mono-racial, or mono-ethnic. Students needed to be taught about the accomplishments of outstanding blacks, Hispanics, and other minorities whose contributions helped to form America. An integrated curriculum should help to decrease alienations, decrease pressures, and increase achievements of its students.

Teachers played a significant role in the integration of schools. Their attitudes toward, and ability to relate to and to understand students of different racial backgrounds, were paramount to successful school integration.

The community where a school was located played an important role in the success or failure of that school moving toward integration. Communities where leadership was supportive of integration enhanced this process.

There were school conditions that were systematically related to favorable outcomes of integrated schooling, particularly to good race

relations. Some of the conditions associated with successful integration were under the control of school personnel.

CHAPTER III DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The primary purpose of this study was to develop and validate an instrument intended to determine the extent of secondary school racial integration using the School Climate and Integration Questionnaire for Students as the criterion measure. A secondary purpose was to determine the extent of integration in the schools used for validation. The locale in which the study was conducted and the two instruments used in the study are described in this chapter along with an explanation of the procedures used for collecting data. Also included is the method used in identifying similarities between the two instruments.

Locale

Two high schools in a Florida school district were profiled as to their degree of attainment of integration as measured by the instrument developed in this study and the one developed by Genova and Walberg (1979) in their study "Promoting Student Integration in City High Schools: A Research Study and Improvement Guideline for Practitioners."

The population of the county served by this school district was 49,287 according to the 1980 Census. The 1987 population was well over 65,000.

In 1986-1987 there were two comprehensive high schools, three middle schools and eight elementary schools in the district. High school number one had a student population of around 1,100 students.

High school number two had over 2,200 students on campus. There were over 11,000 students enrolled in the public schools of this county.

The majority of the county was rural in nature, with an extensive agricultural base. The northern section of the county was more metropolitan and contained the two major cities of the county.

The largest single employer in the county was the public school system. Many of the other residents of the county worked in tourist related industries.

Data Collection Instruments

The instrument developed in this study, Instrumentation for the Assessment of a School's Strengths and Weaknesses in Integration, measured the degree to which certain practices and procedures recommended for achieving effective integration have been implemented in secondary schools. The second instrument, the School Climate and Integration Questionnaire for Students, which was used as the criterion measure, examined student "attitudes and behaviors toward people of different racial and ethnic backgrounds" that were "reported to be significantly related to school integration practices" (Genova & Walberg, 1979, p. 1).

Instrumentation for the Assessment of a School's Strengths and Weaknesses in Integration

This instrument was developed by the researcher, as part of this study, to gather information regarding the degree of attainment of integration in a secondary school. The items which were included in the instrument were selected as a result of what experts, familiar with the desegregation-integration continuum, recommended in literature as

indices of integrated schools. The initial constructed instrument was sent to the directors of the federal desegregation assistance centers for race for their expert opinion as to the validity of each item on the instrument as an index of integration (See Appendix A). The centers were and are currently funded by the United States Department of Education. The Department of Education divided the United States into 17 regions, each of which was assigned its own desegregation center. The main responsibility of these centers is to provide technical assistance to school districts in any area dealing with desegregation and integration. Each director (See Appendix B) was asked to rate the items on the basis of the importance of each as an index of integration and also to comment on the construction of each item (See Appendix C). The final version of the instrument was developed as a result of an analysis of the ratings and comments of the directors (See Appendix D).

Content validity of this instrument was established using the following procedures:

1. Items were constructed from a review of literature containing recommendations by experts in the area of integration.

2. The researcher met with Dr. Gordon Foster, Director of the Federal Desegregation Assistance Center for Race, located in Miami, Florida, to obtain professional advice concerning the validation of the instrument.

3. Dr. Foster gave the researcher the names and addresses of the other desegregation centers directors, along with a letter of endorsement (See Appendix E), encouraging them to participate in this

study. The directors were asked to rate each item on a scale of one through five as to its importance to integration. Sixteen of the 18 (89%) items received a mean rating of 4.25 or above and had a standard deviation of below 0.66. The remaining two items received a mean rating of 3.25 and 3.00 and had a standard deviation of 1.11 and 1.56 respectively. These two items were removed from the final version of the instrument.

Nine of the 17 (53%) directors responded to the researcher's request to rate and comment on the appropriateness of the items on the instrument to measure a school's integration. Any item on the instrument which received a combined mean score of below 4 or which had a standard deviation above 0.75 was rejected (see Table 1). Two of the original items were rejected. These were the number of years teaching experience of the faculty who were found in the school and the self-imposed segregation of minority students who participated in extracurricular activities. The instrument was revised and sent to the directors for further examination and comments. One director suggested that an addition be made to an item that would measure the number of educable mentally handicapped and the number of learning disabled students by race that were found in the school. The researcher made this adjustment to the instrument.

As a result of the review of literature and the critique of the original instrument by the desegregation center directors, the final version of this instrument included 6 major categories and 16 subcategories. They were as follows:

Table 1

Mean Numbers and Standard Deviations of
Desegregation Center Directors Ratings
on the Integration Instrument Variables

Item	Mean	Standard Deviation
A-1	4.63	0.48
A-2	4.50	0.50
A-3	4.63	0.48
A-4	4.38	0.70
A-5	3.25	1.11
B-6	4.70	0.45
B-7	4.50	0.71
C-8	4.63	0.48
C-9	4.63	0.48
C-10	4.75	0.43
D-11	4.25	0.66
D-12	4.63	0.48
E-13	4.75	0.43
E-14	3.00	1.56
E-15	4.50	0.71
F-16	4.38	0.70
F-17	4.25	0.66
F-18	4.25	0.66

A. Curriculum and Instruction

1. The extent to which courses or curriculum materials about the history, culture, and contributions of America's minorities were included in the curriculum.

2. The extent to which the materials found and used in the media center were representative of the history, culture, and contributions of America's minorities.

3. The number of inservice activities that had been made available for teachers to help them become more effective in dealing with students of various minorities.

4. The ethnic composition of the administrators, counselors, teachers, and students found in the school.

B. Discipline Practices and Procedures

1. The number and percent (relative to the total number of students), by race, who had received corporal punishment during the past school year.

2. The number and percent (relative to the total number of students), by race, who had been suspended from school during the past school year.

C. Grouping Practices

1. The method used for assigning students to classes.

2. The percent of students, by race, who were enrolled in college preparatory courses.

3. The percent of students, by race, who were labeled as educationally handicapped.

D. School and Community

1. The number of parents, by race, who participated in parent-teacher or parent advisory groups.
2. The efforts made by the school to ensure the involvement of parents in school policymaking.

E. Student Activities

1. The number of minority students participating in student extracurricular activities.
2. The leadership roles taken by minorities in extracurricular activities.

F. Student Friendship Patterns

1. The extent to which students were segregated, according to race, when not in the classroom.
2. The extent to which racial territories on the school campus existed.
3. The extent to which self-imposed segregation existed in classrooms, the cafeteria, and the media center where free-choice seating took place.

The instrument was composed of two types of items involving school practices and procedures. Some items were of the type which were open-ended calling for a description; and some asked for specific information about the practices and procedures described. All of the items were designed to examine behaviors exhibited in the school which serve as sensitive indicators of integration.

This instrument is referred to throughout the rest of the study as the Integration Instrument.

School Climate and Integration Questionnaire for Students

This instrument (See Appendix F) was developed by a team of researchers from TDR-National Institute of Education during the completion of their Study of Student Integration. The purpose of their study was to identify "student attitudes and reported behaviors toward people of varying racial and ethnic backgrounds that were significantly related to integration practices and school climate factors" (Genova & Walberg, 1979, p. 1). Once a school was profiled using this instrument researchers hoped improvements for integration that were suggested by the results of their study would be implemented.

Genova and Walberg identified 6 school practices and 13 school climate factors that related to positive school integration.

The six school practices were generated from existing research, "where they had been identified as alterable characteristics related to positive race relations" (Genova & Walberg, 1979, p. 4). These six school practices are listed and defined below:

1. Racial Mixing: the extent to which students of different racial and ethnic groups associate in learning, social and recreational activities. (p. 25)
2. Racial Fairness: the extent to which students perceive that people of different racial and ethnic groups are treated equally in the school. (p. 30)
3. Staff Support for Integration: the extent to which students perceive that their teachers and administrators promote supportive interracial association, and deal effectively with racial and ethnic differences. (p. 32)
4. Security: the extent to which students feel safe in and around the school in their associations with students of different racial and ethnic backgrounds. (p. 34)
5. Staff Modeling: the extent to which adequate ratios of white and minority adults make up the school staff, and associate openly, cooperatively, and with equal status. (p. 40)

6. Multicultural Exposure: the extent to which students study and discuss unique and common aspects of the history and culture of various racial and ethnic groups. (p. 42)

The 13 school climate factors used in this study were derived by Genova and Walberg "from studies of different types of organizations, and then adapted to the school environment" (Genova & Walberg, 1979, p. 8). The researchers believed that these 13 factors related directly to the extent and quality of student integration. The factors were as follows:

1. Community: the level of friendship and mutual support school members feel toward each other.
2. Accessibility and Receptivity: the availability and openness of school members to conversation and assistance about concerns.
3. Involvement: the extent of school members' interest and participation in learning, social and other school activities.
4. Equal Treatment: the uniformity of school members' opportunities and treatment in the school.
5. Groupings: the extent to which group membership is a positive or negative experience in the school.
6. Learning Orientation: the extent to which learning and acquiring academic, vocational and interpersonal skills are emphasized in the school.
7. Expressiveness: the extent of originality and open expression of ideas and feelings among school members.
8. Goal Direction: the extent to which school members understand and accept what they are expected to accomplish, and are provided a framework for focusing their efforts.
9. Challenge: the level of difficulty of school members' goals and tasks, and the pace of effort required.
10. Dealing with Problems: the extent to which school problems are identified, analyzed, and resolved when they arise.
11. Order: the extent to which school rules reflect established legal procedures, and are accepted by school members as a legitimate way of maintaining favorable learning conditions.
12. Options: the extent of choice available to school members regarding goals, courses, levels of challenge, and social opportunity.
13. Influence Distribution: the extent to which school members contribute to decisions regarding rules, procedures, and options. (p. 9)

The unit of study with which the questionnaire was concerned was not the individual student, but with the entire school. All information collected was for the purpose of calculating average scores for each school on 19 different measures or indices of integration. Authorization was sought and obtained to use this instrument (See Appendix G).

This instrument is referred to throughout the rest of the study as the Student Survey.

Data Collection Procedures and Analysis

The researcher received authorization from the superintendent of schools to collect data at the two high schools discussed previously. The school district that was chosen met the following criteria:

1. complete desegregation of the school district,
2. agreement on the part of each school's administration for students to participate in the research project, and
3. willingness on the part of each school's administration to have a team of observers visit and profile its school using the Integration Instrument.

The principal of each school was consulted and procedures established to survey all eleventh grade students using the Student Survey. The researcher and principals at both schools decided that the most effective way of administering the survey to all eleventh grade students would be to find classes that students were required to take as a prerequisite for graduation. Two such classes were language arts and American history. The researcher met with the language arts teachers of one school and the American history teachers at the other

and gave them instructions on how to administer the survey. The survey was administered to all eleventh grade students at both schools in groups containing less than 35. Each student was instructed not to place his or her name on the survey form. The student surveys were completed and returned to the researcher.

The researcher hand scored the completed questionnaires using the following steps which had been provided by Genova and Walberg (1979):

1. Each survey was inspected and those that had greater than 20% of the items left blank or with multiple responses were eliminated.
2. Each survey form was divided into groups according to school and racial makeup (white, black, Hispanic, or other minority student).
3. The researcher developed a form to tally the responses of each student. Roughly 40% of the questionnaire items were negative statements. The polarities of all the negatively rated items were reversed on this form for tallying.
4. Each student response was tallied. Next, the researcher added the ratings for the items that make up each integration practice and school climate factor variable. A school rating for each of the 19 characteristics was calculated by using the following formula which was presented in the instructional manual of the Student Survey:

$$\frac{\text{Sum of individual questionnaire ratings}}{\text{Number of individual questionnaires}} \quad \text{divided by} \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{number of items} \\ \text{in the factor} \end{array}$$

5. The school rating for each item then had to be converted to (normalized) scores that could be compared. Genova and Walberg gave the following procedures for generating z(standard) and T(normalized) scores:

$$z(\text{standard score}) = \frac{x(\text{school's rating}) - \text{study mean}}{\text{study standard deviation}}$$

Once the z score was calculated, the next step was to determine the T(normal) score. The following formula was provided for this conversion:

$$T(\text{normal}) \text{ score} = (z) (10) + 50$$

6. Next, the school profile was developed by plotting on a graph, the normalized score of each factor by race for each school.

The researcher then recruited a teacher, who was on a sabbatical year from the school district, to serve as part of an observation team. This individual received a three hour training, conducted by the researcher, on the purpose of the study and the implementation of the Integration Instrument. The researcher and the observer spent two days at both high schools collecting data using this instrument. The following data collection procedures were used by the observation team:

A. Curriculum and Instruction

1. The researcher met with the principal and curriculum coordinator at each school to determine if courses or curriculum materials about the contributions of minorities were included in the curriculum and if a school policy existed to guide this effort. The trained observer met with social studies teachers to determine if and how information about the contributions of minorities was presented to the students.

2. The observation team interviewed the media specialists to determine what materials were contained in the media center pertaining to the history, culture, and contributions of America's minorities and

with what frequency these materials were used by students and faculty members.

3. The researcher met with the district administrator responsible for coordination of inservice education while the trained observer met with the principal at each school to determine what, if any, inservice activities have been provided for teachers to help them be more effective in dealing with students of various minorities.

4. The researcher obtained a copy of the Fall Student Survey from each principal. This report was completed at each school once a year and contained demographic information which dealt with the racial composition of students and faculty, the number of student suspensions and corporal punishments administered at the school, and the number of students found in the exceptional education programs of the school. The researcher collected data on the ethnic composition of the administrators, counselors, teachers, and students in the school using this report.

B. Discipline Practices and Procedures

1. The researcher examined each school's Fall Student Survey to determine how many students, by ethnic composition, received corporal punishment during the past school year.

2. The researcher examined each school's Fall Student Survey to determine how many students, by ethnic composition, were suspended from attending school during the past school year.

C. Grouping Practices

1. The researcher met with administrators at both schools while the trained observer met with the guidance counselors to determine how students were assigned to classes.

2. The researcher obtained, from the guidance director, class rolls of teachers who instructed the advanced classes in the school to determine the number of students who were enrolled in college preparatory classes.

3. The trained observer met with the guidance counselor responsible for coordinating staffing of students in and out of exceptional education classes at each school to determine how many students, by ethnic composition, were labeled as educationally handicapped.

D. School and Community

1. The observation team met with the principal to collect information pertaining to the number of parents, by ethnic composition, who participated in parent-teacher organization or in parent advisory groups.

2. The observation team interviewed the principal to ascertain what efforts, if any, were made by school officials to ensure the involvement of minority and majority parents in school policymaking. The trained observer interviewed parents who actively participated in school advisory committees to determine if they felt they had an influence on school policymaking.

E. Student Activities

1. The researcher interviewed coaches of various athletic teams at each school while the trained observer interviewed sponsors of extracurricular activities to determine the number minority students who were participating in school activities.

2. The observation team asked the above mentioned extracurricular sponsors if student leadership positions in their organizations were representative of all racial groups.

F. Student Friendship Patterns

1. The observation team independently examined students during the two days they were at each campus to see if students segregated, according to race, when not in the classroom.

2. The observation team independently examined students before school, after school, between class changes, and during lunch to see if there were self-imposed racial territories on the school campus.

3. The observation team independently examined the student free-choice seating patterns in classrooms, the lunch room, and the cafeteria to see if students segregated according to race.

Instrument Analysis

The Student Survey consisted of 19 integration variables and the Integration Instrument consisted of 16 integration variables. Variables from each instrument were examined and a comparison was completed to determine if similarities existed between the specific integration characteristics measured. For instance, the Student Survey school integration practice of staff modeling measures the extent to which adequate ratios of white and minority adults make up the school

staff. This same factor was measured by the Integration Instrument variable which asked for the number and ethnic composition of the administrators, counselors, and teachers found in the school. Table 2 gives a narrative comparison of the relationships which were found to exist between the variables of the two instruments. Of the 19 variables measured by the Student Survey, 7 were found to be comparable to what was measured by the Integration Instrument. These seven integration variables were community, involvement, equal treatment, racial mixing, staff support for integration, staff modeling, and multicultural exposure.

Summary

In this chapter, the locale in which the study was conducted was described, and the instruments which were used were explained. The procedures used in gathering and analyzing the data for the study were presented along with a comparison done between the two instruments.

The findings of the study are presented in Chapter IV.

Table 2

Comparison of the Nineteen Integration Factors of The Student Survey
with the Sixteen Integration Areas of The Integration Instrument

The Student Survey	The Integration Instrument
School Climate Factors	
1. Community	1. The level of friendship and mutual support students feel toward each other can be shown by examining the student friendship patterns (F-1, F-2, F-3).
2. Accessibility and receptivity	2. The availability and openness of school members to conversation and assistance about concerns can not be measured by this instrument.
3. Involvement	3. The extent of school members' participation in school activities can be shown by examining the proportion of minority students who are participating in student activities (E-1).
4. Equal treatment	4. The uniformity of school members' treatment can be shown by examining the distribution of discipline practices procedures among the races (B-1, B-2)
5. Groupings	5. The extent to which group membership is a positive or negative experience in the school can not be measured by this instrument.
6. Learning orientation	6. The extent to which learning and acquiring academic, vocational, and interpersonal skills are emphasized in school can be measured by this instrument.
7. Expressiveness	7. The extent of originality, open expression of ideas, and feelings among school members can not be measured by this instrument.

Note. () identifies compatible integration indice variable from the Integration Instrument.

Table 2-continued

The Student Survey	The Integration Instrument
School Climate Factors	
8. Goal direction	8. The extent to which school members understand and accept what they are expected to accomplish can not be measured by this instrument.
9. Challenge	9. The level of difficulty of school members' goals and tasks, and the pace of effort required can not be measured by this instrument.
10. Dealing with problems	10. The extent of identifying, analyzing, and resolving school problems when they arise can not be measured by this instrument.
11. Order	11. The extent to which school rules reflect established legal procedures can not be measured by this instrument.
12. Options	12. The extent of choice available to students regarding goals, courses, levels of challenge, and social opportunity can not be measured by this instrument.
13. Influence distribution	13. The extent to which school members contribute to decisions can not be measured by this instrument.
School Integration Practices	
1. Racial mixing	1. The extent to which students of various races interact can be shown by examining the student friendship patterns found in the school (F-1,F-2, F-3)
2. Racial fairness	2. The extent to which students perceive that people of different racial groups are treated equally can not be measured by this instrument.

Note . () identifies compatible integration indice variable from the Integration Instrument.

Table 2-continued

The Student Survey	The Integration Instrument
School Integration Practices	
3. Staff support for integration	3. The extent to which teachers and administrators support interracial associations can be shown by examining the amount of the curriculum that is devoted to the contributions of minorities to society (A-1), the amount of resources available on this topic found in the media center (A-2), and availability of inservice activities for teachers in integration (A-3).
4. Security	4. The extent to which students feel safe associating with students of different racial backgrounds can not be measured by this instrument.
5. Staff modeling	5. The extent to which adequate ratios of minorities are on staff can be shown by examining the ethnic composition of the staff (A-4).
6. Multicultural exposure	6. The extent to which students study and discuss the history and cultures of various races can be shown by examining how extensive the curriculum deals with this topic (A-1).

Note. () identifies compatible integration indice variable from the Integration Instrument.

CHAPTER IV ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

Introduction

The primary purpose of this study was to develop and validate an instrument intended to determine the extent of secondary school racial integration using the School Climate and Integration Questionnaire for Students (the Student Survey) as the criterion measure. A secondary purpose was to determine the extent of integration in the schools used for validation. An analysis of the data collected using these two instruments for the two secondary schools is described in this chapter.

Procedures

Data were collected on the extent of integration of the two high schools in a Florida school district. The Student Survey was administered to all eleventh grade students at both schools. The sample of students (See Table 3) at school number one was comprised of 200 whites, 6 blacks, 5 Hispanics, and 7 other minority students (Asian/Pacific and American Indian). Ten white students' questionnaires were rejected from the study sample because they had greater than 20% of the items left blank or had multiple responses. The sample of students at school number two was comprised of 266 whites, 18 blacks, 32 Hispanics, and 8 other minority students. Sixteen white students' questionnaires were rejected from the study sample because they had greater than 20% of the items left blank or had multiple responses.

Table 3

Sample Cell by School and Ethnicity of Students

Ethnicity	School		Total
	1	2	
White	190	250	440
Black	6	18	24
Hispanic	5	32	37
Other minority	7	8	15
Rejected	10	16	30
Total	218	324	542

Note. Ten white student's questionnaires from school number one and 20 white student's questionnaires from school number two were rejected because they had 20% of the items on the survey left blank or had multiple responses.

A second instrument, Instrumentation for the Assessment of a School's Strengths and Weaknesses in Integration (the Integration Instrument), was constructed by the researcher. An observer was trained on the use of this instrument. The researcher and observer spent two days at each school collecting data using the Integration Instrument. The observation team assessed the status of integration of each school using the dimensions defined by the Integration Instrument. The variables used were described specifically in Chapter III. Then the integration profiles developed for each school using the two instruments were compared. This comparison is described in this chapter.

Results Using the Student Survey

School Number One

The data generated from the responses of the surveyed students from school number one are presented in Tables 4 through 7. An examination of Tables 4 through 7 reveals that in the Student Survey there was a total 19 school climate factors and practices used in the analysis. The data collected on each school factor and practice were converted to mean, z and T scores for each school. Tables 4, 5, 6, and 7 deal with the school's ratings assigned by white, black, Hispanic, and other minority students respectively. Figures 1 through 4 display a graphic representation of the school's ratings given by all the races.

The results of the Student Survey for school number one generally indicated an agreement of attitudes existed among the students of the various racial groups. The other minority students (American Indian and Asian/Pacific) rated the school the highest with 10 school climate

Table 4

The z(Standard) Score and T(Normal) Score of Whites (N=190) for Each Characteristic of School Number One as Measured by the Student Survey

Characteristic	School		
	Mean	z Score	T Score
School climate factors			
Community	2.71	0.35	53.52
Accessibility and receptivity	2.36	-0.08	49.16
Involvement	2.33	-0.08	49.18
Equal treatment	2.54	-0.33	46.75
Groupings	2.25	-0.75	42.54
Learning orientation	2.69	0.10	51.04
Expressiveness	2.53	-0.26	47.37
Goal direction	2.47	-0.14	48.56
Challenge	2.80	0.34	53.40
Dealing with problems	2.37	-0.14	48.57
Order	2.56	-0.16	47.37
Options	2.92	0.23	47.74
Influence			
Distribution	2.25	-0.19	48.12
School integration practices			
Racial mixing	2.65	-0.14	48.62
Staff models	2.99	0.23	52.29
Security	2.92	0.10	50.98
Staff support for integration	2.80	0.16	51.59
Multicultural			
Exposure	2.77	0.16	51.64
Racial fairness	3.00	0.34	53.41

Table 5

The z(Standard) Score and T(Normal) Score of Blacks (N=6) for Each Characteristic of School Number One as Measured by the Student Survey

Characteristic	School		
	Mean	z Score	T Score
School climate factors			
Community	2.72	0.38	53.80
Accessibility and receptivity	2.28	-0.21	47.86
Involvement	2.35	-0.05	49.46
Equal treatment	2.22	-0.91	40.88
Groupings	2.11	-0.97	40.33
Learning orientation	2.45	-0.28	47.20
Expressiveness	2.11	-1.00	40.02
Goal direction	2.78	0.41	54.09
Challenge	3.11	0.82	58.21
Dealing with problems	2.00	-0.78	42.13
Order	2.83	-0.28	52.83
Options	2.90	0.18	51.77
Influence distribution	2.56	0.31	53.08
School integration practices			
Racial mixing	2.83	0.22	52.24
Staff models	2.56	-0.85	41.47
Security	2.64	-0.37	46.31
Staff support for integration	2.58	-0.35	46.50
Multicultural exposure	2.78	0.25	52.52
Racial fairness	2.70	-0.30	46.98

Table 6

The z(Standard) Score and T(Normal) Score of Hispanics (N=5) for Each Characteristic of School Number One as Measured by the Student Survey

Characteristic	School		
	Mean	z Score	T Score
School climate factors			
Community	2.56	0.11	51.07
Accessibility and receptivity	2.27	-0.23	47.68
Involvement	2.53	0.23	52.30
Equal treatment	2.80	0.14	51.42
Groupings	2.80	0.16	51.64
Learning orientation	2.13	-0.78	42.23
Expressiveness	2.13	-0.96	40.41
Goal direction	2.67	0.21	52.10
Challenge	2.80	0.35	53.46
Dealing with problems	2.33	-0.20	47.96
Order	2.87	0.34	53.38
Options	2.67	-0.15	48.51
Influence distribution	2.13	0.37	46.33
School integration practices			
Racial mixing	2.83	0.22	52.24
Staff models	2.83	-0.16	48.45
Security	2.83	-0.04	49.57
Staff support for integration	2.63	-0.23	47.69
Multicultural exposure	2.68	0.01	49.92
Racial fairness	3.00	0.35	53.50

Table 7

The z(Standard) Score and T(Normal) Score of Other Minority Students (N=5) for Each Characteristic of School Number One as Measured by the Student Survey

Characteristic	School		
	Mean	z Score	T Score
School climate factors			
Community	2.81	0.53	55.25
Accessibility and receptivity	2.48	0.11	51.14
Involvement	2.67	0.44	54.39
Equal treatment	2.48	-0.45	45.52
Groupings	1.71	-1.62	33.81
Learning orientation	2.72	0.15	51.51
Expressiveness	2.53	-0.26	47.42
Goal direction	2.70	0.27	47.30
Challenge	2.67	0.14	51.42
Dealing with problems	2.38	-0.12	48.79
Order	2.81	0.24	52.44
Options	2.62	-0.22	47.82
Influence distribution	2.19	-0.28	47.24
School integration practices			
Racial mixing	2.99	0.53	55.26
Staff models	2.91	0.03	50.25
Security	2.71	-0.24	47.57
Staff support for integration	2.79	0.13	51.30
Multicultural exposure	2.45	-0.51	44.92
Racial fairness	2.93	0.20	51.98

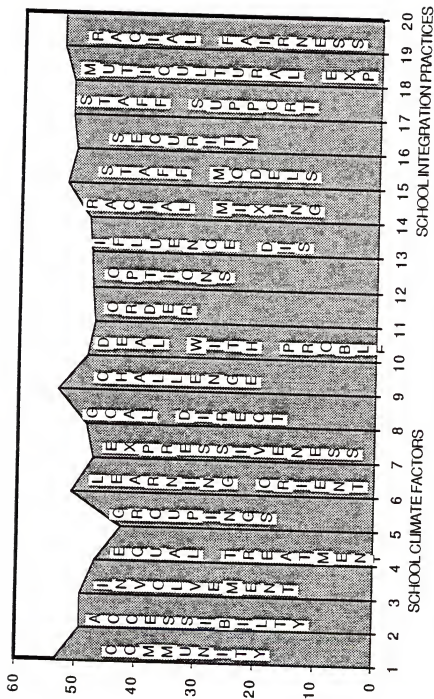


Figure 1: Graphic representation of white students' ratings of school number one using the Student Survey.

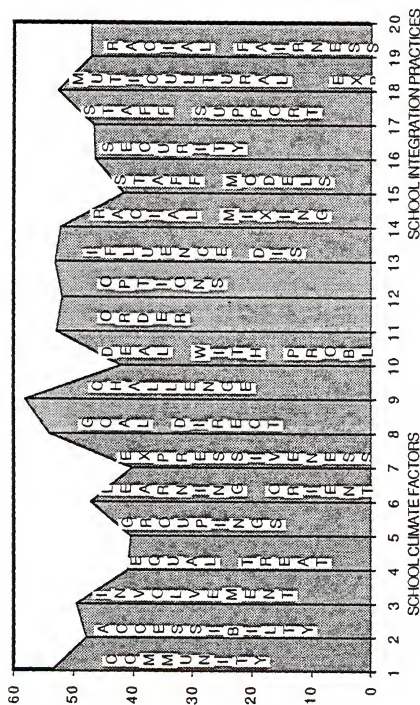


Figure 2: Graphic representation of black students' ratings of school number one using the Student Survey.

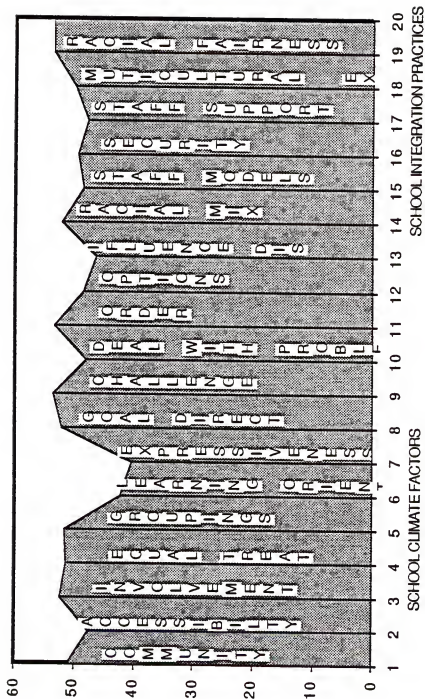


Figure 3: Graphic representation of Hispanic students' ratings of school number one using the Student Survey.

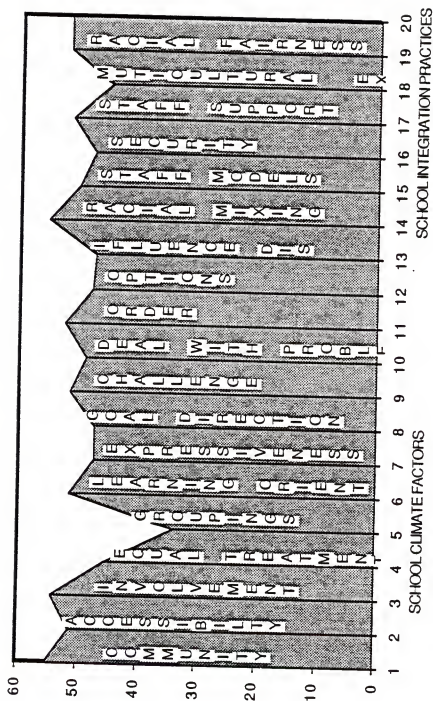


Figure 4: Graphic representation of other minority students' ratings of school number one using the Student Survey.

factors and school practices equal to or above the mean and 9 school climate factors and school practices below the mean. The next highest school rating was given by the Hispanic students with 9 school climate factors and school practices rated above the mean and 10 rated below the mean. The white and black students each rated school number one as having 8 school climate factors and practices equal to or above the mean and 11 factors and practices below the mean.

All of the student racial groups rated the school climate factors of community and challenge above the mean. This indicated a high level of friendship and mutual support among the student racial groups were found in the school.

In contrast, all of the student racial groups rated school number one's climate factors of expressiveness and dealing with problems below the mean. This indicated a feeling of restriction on the part of all students in expressing ideas and feelings or in identifying, analyzing, and resolving school problems when they arise.

All of the ratings of the factors and practices, except for grouping by other students, fell within a range of 33.81 to 58.21. The vast majority of them, 67 (89%), fell within the range of 45 to 59 which was interpreted to mean that the students in school number one had overall favorable attitudes toward the school climate factors and practices as these factors relate to integration.

School Number Two

The data generated from the responses of the surveyed students from school number two are presented in Tables 8 through 11. Tables 8 through 11 deal with the responses of white, black, Hispanic, and other

Table 8

The z(Standard) Score and T(Normal) Score of Whites (N=250) for Each Characteristic of School Number Two as Measured by the Student Survey

Characteristic	School		
	Mean	z Score	T Score
School climate factors			
Community	2.64	0.24	52.42
Accessibility and receptivity	2.26	-0.24	47.57
Involvement	2.28	-0.17	48.34
Equal treatment	2.48	-0.43	45.66
Groupings	2.21	-0.80	42.01
Learning orientation	2.52	-0.17	48.34
Expressiveness	2.43	-0.44	45.63
Goal direction	2.33	-0.39	46.15
Challenge	2.72	0.22	52.19
Dealing with problems	2.35	-0.18	48.17
Order	2.45	-0.35	46.55
Options	2.71	-0.08	49.18
Influence distribution	2.26	-0.17	48.29
School integration practices			
Racial mixing	2.73	0.02	50.18
Staff models	3.01	0.28	52.77
Security	2.68	-0.31	46.94
Staff support for integration	2.77	0.08	50.79
Multicultural exposure	2.81	0.32	53.18
Racial fairness	2.96	0.27	52.65

Table 9

The z(Standard) Score and T(Normal) Score of Blacks (N=18) for Each Characteristic of School Number Two as Measured by the Student Survey

Characteristic	School		
	Mean	z Score	T Score
School climate factors			
Community Accessibility	2.85	0.59	55.94
and receptivity	2.32	-0.15	48.48
Involvement	2.32	-0.11	48.87
Equal treatment	2.56	-0.30	46.96
Groupings	2.48	-0.36	46.41
Learning orientation	2.72	0.16	51.63
Expressiveness	2.61	-0.12	48.85
Goal direction	2.26	-0.52	44.82
Challenge	2.70	0.20	51.98
Dealing with problems	2.50	0.09	50.87
Order	2.57	-0.14	48.57
Options	2.65	-0.18	48.24
Influence distribution	2.17	-0.31	46.86
School integration practices			
Racial mixing	2.82	0.21	52.06
Staff models	2.69	-0.50	44.96
Security	2.96	0.17	51.74
Staff support for integration	2.47	-0.61	43.87
Multicultural exposure	2.68	0.01	50.00
Racial fairness	2.69	-0.15	48.49

Table 10

The z(Standard) Score and T(Normal) Score of Hispanics (N=32) for Each Characteristic of School Number Two as Measured by the Student Survey

Characteristic	School		
	Mean	z Score	T Score
School climate factors			
Community	2.56	0.12	51.15
Accessibility and receptivity	2.49	0.13	51.37
Involvement	2.50	0.18	51.77
Equal treatment	2.60	-0.22	47.85
Groupings	2.40	-0.50	45.00
Learning orientation	2.71	0.14	51.41
Expressiveness	2.48	-0.35	46.51
Goal direction	2.50	-0.09	49.13
Challenge	2.74	0.25	52.53
Dealing with problems	2.41	-0.07	49.23
Order	2.66	-0.01	49.92
Options	2.75	0.03	49.74
Influence distribution	2.24	-0.20	48.03
School integration practices			
Racial mixing	2.57	-0.29	47.09
Staff models	2.75	-0.38	46.23
Security	2.86	0.01	50.09
Staff support for integration	2.61	-0.29	47.12
Multicultural exposure	2.50	-0.40	46.03
Racial fairness	2.84	0.17	50.17

Table 11

The z(Standard) Score and T(Normal) Score of Other Minority Students (N=8) for Each Characteristic of School Number Two as Measured by the Student Survey

Characteristic	School		
	Mean	z Score	T Score
School climate factors			
Community Accessibility	2.96	0.77	57.72
and receptivity	2.29	-0.19	48.09
Involvement	2.38	-0.02	49.81
Equal treatment	2.46	-0.48	45.19
Groupings	2.29	-0.67	43.30
Learning Orientation	2.63	0.01	50.08
Expressiveness	2.38	-0.53	44.67
Goal Direction	2.58	0.06	50.61
Challenge	2.88	0.46	54.60
Dealing with problems	2.42	-0.06	49.42
Order	2.38	-0.47	45.30
Options	2.81	0.07	50.65
Influence distribution	1.82	-0.87	41.53
School integration practices			
Racial mixing	2.77	0.10	51.01
Staff models	2.90	0.01	50.02
Security	3.00	0.24	52.37
Staff support for integration	2.86	0.24	52.43
Multicultural exposure	2.46	-0.50	45.06
Racial fairness	2.81	-0.05	49.50

minority students respectively. Figures 5 through 8 display a graphic representation of the school's ratings given by all the races.

The results of the Student Survey for school number two indicated that the other minority students rated the school the highest with 9 school climate factors and practices equal to or above the mean and only 10 below the mean. The white, black, and Hispanic students rated the school with 7 school climate factors and practices equal to or above the mean and 12 below the mean.

All racial groups rated the school climate factors of community and challenge above the mean. This was interpreted to mean that a high level of friendship and mutual support between the different racial groups existed in the school and that students felt school was academically demanding.

In contrast, all the student racial groups rated the school climate factors of equal treatment, groupings, expressiveness, order, and influence distribution below the mean. This indicated a feeling by the students of below average opportunity to express ideas and receive assistance about concerns that existed in the school.

All of the ratings of the school climate factors and practices fell within a range of 42.01 to 57.72. The majority of them, 69 (91%), fell within a range of 45 to 58. This was interpreted to mean that the students in school number two had an overall favorable attitude toward the school climate factors and practices as they related to integration.

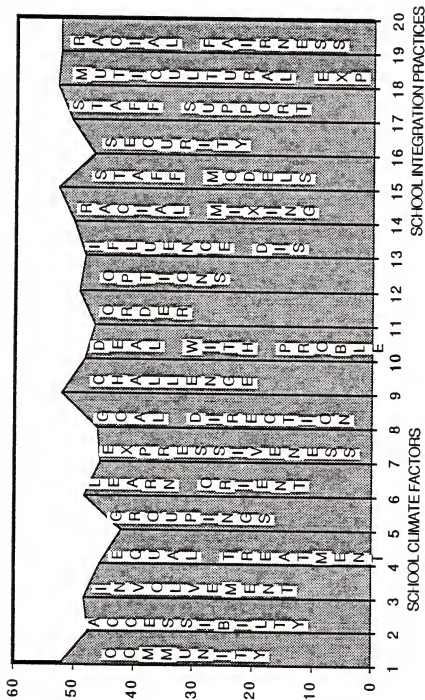


Figure 5: Graphic representation of white students' ratings of school number two using the Student Survey.

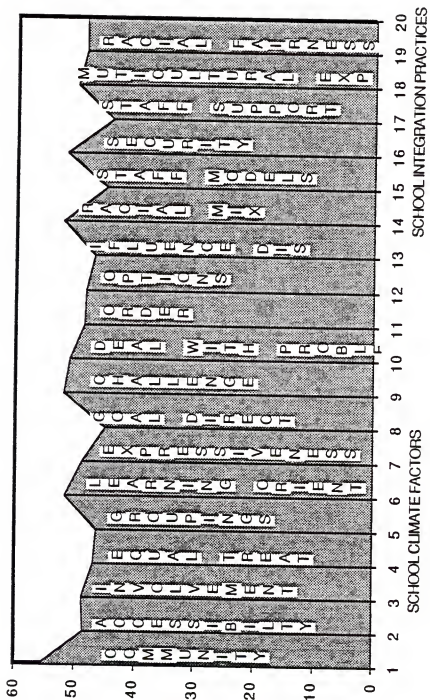


Figure 6: Graphic representation of black students' ratings of school number two using the Student Survey.

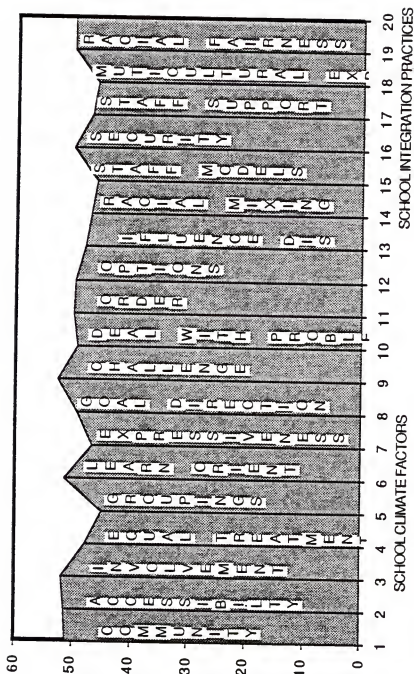


Figure 7: Graphic representation of Hispanic students' ratings of school number two using the Student Survey.

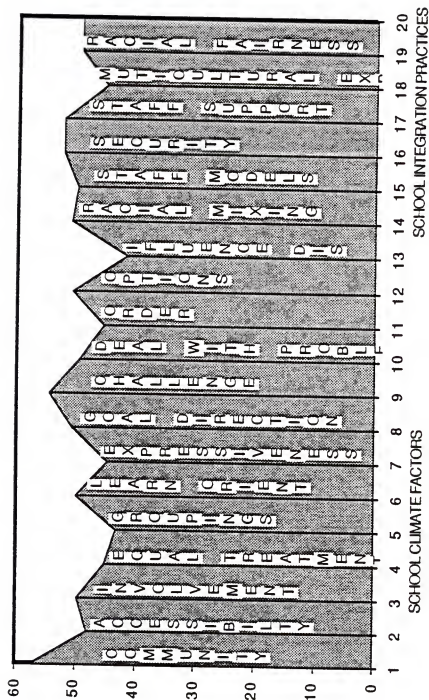


Figure 8: Graphic representation of other minority students' ratings of school number two using the Student Survey.

Results Using the Integration Instrument

School Number One

The observation team spent two days at this school collecting data applicable to the Integration Instrument. The following were the results of this investigation.

Curriculum and instruction

No course was offered by the school which dealt exclusively with the history, culture, and contributions of minorities to American society. Several years ago, a course entitled "Black History" was offered to the students. So few students registered for the course that the administration was never able to include it in the school's master schedule. Information concerning this topic was included in two social studies courses: world history and American History. All students had to earn credit in these courses before they could graduate from the school. Therefore, all students came into contact with this subject during their high school careers.

There were over 75 books in the school media center which dealt with the history, culture, and contributions of America's minorities. Two filmstrips and one record dealt with this topic. The school subscribed to two periodicals, Jet and Ebony, whose publishers specifically dealt with material geared toward the interests of their black readership. While extensive materials on this subject were found in the media center, the frequency of their usage was very low. Only the aforementioned two periodicals were used by students with any regularity.

No inservice activities in recent years had been provided for teachers to help them be more effective in dealing with students of various minorities.

The three administrators and four guidance counselors were all white. Two teachers (3.3%) were black, 1 teacher was Hispanic (1.6%), and the remaining 57 (95%) teachers were white. There were 1,076 students in this school. Of these, 1,017 (94.4%) were white, 31 (3%) were black, 21 (2%) were Hispanic, and 7 (0.6%) were other minority students.

Discipline practices and procedures

During the previous school year, 210 (20%) of the students received corporal punishment. Some of these students received this punishment more than once. Of these, 199 (95%) were white, 5 (2%) were black, 5 (2%) were Hispanic, and 1 (1%) was an other minority student.

During that same year, 88 (8%) of the students at the school received out-of-school suspensions as punishment. Of these, 78 (89%) were white, 7 (8%) were black, 3 (3%) were Hispanic. No other minority student was suspended from school.

Grouping practices

Students were assigned to classes heterogeneously by their own selection. They had to meet specific prerequisites before they could be enrolled into selected courses. For instance, a student could not enroll in Algebra II without first successfully completing Algebra I.

There were 358 (33%) students enrolled in college preparatory courses. Of these, 344 (96%) were white, 4 (1%) were black, 7 (2%)

were Hispanic, and 3 (1%) were other minority students. This means that 34% of the white students, 13% of the black students, 33% of the Hispanic students, and 43% of the other minority students found in the school were enrolled in college preparatory courses.

There were 52 (5%) students labeled as educationally handicapped students. There were three different programs in the school which dealt with these students: educable mentally handicapped, emotionally handicapped, and specific learning disabled. Of these students, 21 (40%) participated in one of these programs on a part-time basis. Seven students were labeled as educable mentally handicapped, five (71%) were white and two (29%) were black. Six students were labeled as emotionally handicapped and they were all white. Thirty-nine students were labeled as having a specific learning disability. Of these 39 students, 36 (92%) were white, 2 (5%) were black, and 1 (3%) was Hispanic. No other minority student was labeled as having a specific learning disability.

School and community

There were regularly scheduled monthly meetings of the parent advisory committee (PAC). The number of parents participating in the PAC the previous year had ranged from a low of 18 to a high of 56. The average attendance at these meetings was 25 parents. Very few minority parents attended the PAC meetings. At many PAC meetings, only white parents were present.

All parents were sent a letter, by the school's administration, at the beginning of the school year informing them of the first meeting and asked them to attend. Any parent who attended one meeting was

placed on a mailing list and was sent a letter each month by the administration telling them of the upcoming meeting and giving them the agenda for the meeting.

The role of the PAC was to advise the school administration on policy issues. The PAC chairman and the past chairman were contacted and both indicated that the organization had played an important role in policymaking for the school.

Student activities

The number of minority and majority students participating in school extracurricular activities are found in Table 12. Several activities were composed entirely of white students. These included the honor society, the volleyball team, and the softball team.

The largest black participation in student activities was found on the football team with 10 (11%) students and on the track and field team with 5 (11%) students. Blacks participated in many non-athletic activities, but generally in small numbers.

The same other minority student participated in student government, the cross-country team, and the American Field Service club.

Teacher sponsors of student activities stated that minority students who participated in extracurricular activities took leadership positions in those activities.

Table 12

The Number and the Percent of Students Participating
In Extracurricular Activities at School Number One

	Total #	# White	%	# Black	%	# Hispanic	%	# Other	%
Student council	40	37	92	2	5	0	0	1	3
Chorus	50	47	94	2	4	1	2	0	0
Cheerleaders	46	45	98	1	2	0	0	0	0
Band	65	63	97	2	3	0	0	0	0
Drama	40	38	94	1	3	1	3	0	0
Yearbook/ newspaper	25	24	96	1	4	0	0	0	0
Honor society	21	21	100	0	0	0	0	0	0
Football	90	79	88	10	11	1	1	0	0
Basketball	50	48	96	2	4	0	0	0	0
Wrestling	35	31	88	2	6	2	6	0	0
Volleyball	24	24	100	0	0	0	0	0	0
Track	43	34	81	5	11	2	5	1	3
Softball	14	14	100	0	0	0	0	0	0
Tennis	17	16	94	0	0	0	0	1	6
Golf	10	10	100	0	0	0	0	0	0
Baseball	28	26	92	2	8	0	0	0	0
Cross- country	27	26	96	0	0	0	0	1	4
Field service	24	20	83	1	4	2	8	2	4

Student friendship patterns

When students were not in the classrooms, there appeared to be limited self-imposed racial segregation. Minority students were observed associating with majority students with great regularity.

There appeared to be no racial areas or territories on the school campus before, during, or after school.

Self-imposed segregation appeared on a limited basis during lunch. Some groups of black students segregated themselves into seating patterns in the cafeteria. But, more minority students were sitting among majority students during lunch than were seated by themselves.

School Number Two

The research team spent two days at this school collecting data applicable to the Integration Instrument. The following are the results of this investigation.

Curriculum and instruction

No course was offered by the school that dealt exclusively with the history, culture, and contributions of minorities to American society. During the early and mid 1970s, a course entitled "Black Studies" had been offered at the school. At the time of this investigation, information on this subject was presented to the students as units in two separate courses: world history and American history. A separate textbook on minority relations was used in the American history course. All students were required to earn credit in

both American and world history before they could graduate from high school. Therefore, all students who graduated received some information on this topic.

There were over 90 books in the school media center which dealt with the history, culture, and contributions of minorities to American society. There were also 12 films on this topic available to teachers through the county-wide media center. The school media center subscribed to two periodicals, Jet and Ebony. The books dealing with America's minorities were used infrequently by the students in the school. Students examined the two periodicals on a regular basis. History teachers had regularly checked-out films dealing with this subject, especially the two films: Black Soldier and I Have a Dream: The Life of Martin Luther King.

No inservice activities had been offered in recent years for teachers to help them become more effective in dealing with students of various minorities.

One (25%) of the four administrators in the school was black, the other three (75%) were white. One (20%) guidance counselor was black, one (20%) was Hispanic, and the other three (60%) were white. Of the 109 teachers at the school, 9 (8%) were black, 4 (4%) were Hispanic, and 96 (88%) were white. There were 2,173 students in the school. Of these 2,173 students, 1,839 (85%) were white, 145 (7%) were black, 158 (7%) were Hispanic, and 31 (1%) were other minority students.

Discipline practices and procedures

During the previous school year, 56 (3%) of the students received corporal punishment. Some of these students had received punishment

more than once. Of the 56 students who received corporal punishment, 40 (71%) were white, 13 (23%) were black, 2 (4%) were Hispanic, and 1 (2%) was an other minority student.

During that same school year, 163 (8%) of the students in the school received out-of-school suspension as punishment. Of these 163 students, 112 (69%) were white, 42 (26%) were black, 7 (4%) were Hispanic, and 2 (1%) were other minority students.

Grouping practices

Students were assigned classes heterogeneously by their own selection. Many classes had prerequisites which students had to meet before they could be enrolled in the course.

There were 571 (26%) students enrolled in college preparatory courses. Of these 571 students, 509 (89%) were white, 13 (2%) were black, 33 (6%) were Hispanic, and 16 (3%) were Asian/Pacific or other minority students. This meant that 28% of the white students, 9% of the black students, 21% of the Hispanic students, and 52% of the other minority students were enrolled in college preparatory classes.

There were 71 (3%) students labeled as educationally handicapped. There were five different programs in the school which dealt with these students: educable mentally handicapped, speech/hearing and language handicapped, visually handicapped, emotionally handicapped, and specific learning disabled. Of these 71 students, 28 (39%) participated in one of these programs on a part-time basis. Twelve students were identified as educable mentally handicapped, 5 (42%) were white and 7 (58%) were black. Eleven students were identified as having a speech/hearing and language disability, all of these students

were white. One white student and one Hispanic student were identified as having a visual handicap. Five students were identified as being emotionally handicapped, two (40%) were white and three (60%) were black. Forty-one students were labeled as having a specific learning disability, 36 (88%) of these students were white, 3 (7%) were black, and 2 (5%) were Hispanic. No other minority student was identified as being educationally handicapped.

School and community

There were regularly scheduled monthly meetings of a parent advisory committee (PAC). The number of parents participating in the PAC averaged 23 per monthly meeting. The majority of the parents attending these meetings were white. Some, generally the same husband and wife, Hispanic parents attended. No black parents generally attended these meetings. The time and place of these meetings were advertised in a local newspaper each month. Each PAC parent was given a phone call asking them to attend the meetings.

The school applied for and received a \$5,000 grant from the Florida Department of Education to improve communication between Hispanic parents and the school. This money was used to send a monthly Spanish language newsletter home to Hispanic parents, informing them of "happenings" in the school. The same newsletter, written in English, was also sent to all other parents of students in the school.

There was a parent liason committee which conducted fund raising activities during the school year to raise money to help meet academic supply and equipment needs that were identified by teachers. Each year

this group donated several thousand dollars of supplies and equipment to the school.

The PAC parents, who were contacted by the observation, team indicated that they played an important role in the school policymaking decisions and that the school's administration had been receptive to their suggestions.

Student activities

The number of minority and majority students participating in school extracurricular activities are found in Table 13. Only the golf team was composed entirely of white students. Each of the other student activity memberships were composed of at least some minority students. The greatest participation of minority students in student activities was found on the basketball team. Of the 43 basketball players, 11 (26%) were white, 21 (49%) were black, 10 (23%) were Hispanic, and 1 (2%) was an other minority student. The football team membership had the next largest minority participation of any student activity found in the school. Of the 115 football players, 81 (70%) were white, 26 (23%) were black, 6 (5%) were Hispanic, and 2 (2%) were other minority students. During the previous football season, a black "Homecoming Queen" was selected by a majority of the entire student body.

The teacher sponsors of the extracurricular activities felt that minority students took leadership positions when they were part of the activity memberships.

Table 13

The Number and the Percent of Students Participating
In Extracurricular Activities at School Number Two

	Total #	# White	%	# Black	%	# Hispanic	%	# Other	%
Student council	38	33	86	3	8	1	3	1	3
Chorus	156	148	95	2	1	6	4	0	0
Cheerleaders	30	28	92	0	0	1	4	1	4
Band	117	104	90	3	2	8	7	2	1
Drama	30	27	90	0	0	3	10	0	0
Yearbook/ newspaper	47	38	81	3	6	6	13	0	0
Honor society	59	53	90	0	0	5	8	1	2
Football	115	81	70	26	23	6	5	2	2
Basketball	43	11	25	21	56	10	23	1	2
Wrestling	18	15	83	2	11	1	6	0	0
Volleyball	11	6	55	4	36	0	0	1	9
Track	46	29	63	11	24	6	13	0	0
Softball	18	12	67	4	22	1	6	1	6
Tennis	13	9	70	0	0	2	15	2	15
Golf	12	12	100	0	0	0	0	0	0
Baseball	31	26	84	0	0	5	16	0	0
Cross- country	9	7	78	0	0	1	11	1	11

Student friendship patterns

When students were not in the classrooms, there appeared to be little self-imposed racial segregation. Minority students were observed associating with majority students with great regularity.

There appeared to be no racial areas or territories on the school campus before, during, or after school.

Self-imposed segregation was observed on a limited basis during lunch. Some groups of students, black and Hispanic, segregated themselves into seating patterns in the cafeteria. But, more blacks, Hispanics, and other minority students were found sitting among whites during lunch than were seated by themselves.

Comparison of Schools One and Two on the Integration Instrument

A comparison of the data collected for schools number one and two is found in Table 14. Similarities were found between each school in the area of curriculum and instruction. Each schools' teaching staff presented information concerning minorities' contributions toward American society in social studies classes. Materials dealing with this topic were found in the school media center but were used infrequently. No teacher inservice training on the subject of minority race relations had been offered in recent times at either school.

A greater percentage of black students received out-of-school suspension in school number two than in school number one, 26% to 8%.

A larger percentage of the total minority student population was enrolled in college preparatory courses at school number one (24%) than at school number two (18%). Five percent of the total student

Table 14

A Comparison of the Data Collected Using the Integration Instrument
for Schools One and Two

School number one	School number two																																																																												
A. Curriculum and instruction																																																																													
No separate course on minorities. Information concerning America's minority cultures presented as a separate unit in American and world histories.	No separate course on minorities. Information concerning America's minority cultures presented as a separate unit in American and world histories.																																																																												
Over 75 books dealing with America's minorities are found in the media center. Very low frequency of use by students or teachers.	Over 90 books dealing with America's minorities are found in the media center. Very low frequency of use by students or teachers.																																																																												
No inservice activities in recent years had been offered to teachers to help them be more effective in dealing with students of various minorities.	No inservice activities in recent years had been offered to teachers to help them be more effective in dealing with students of various minorities.																																																																												
Ethnic composition of individuals found in the school was as follows:	Ethnic composition of individuals found in the school was as follows:																																																																												
<table><tr><td></td><td>#</td><td>%</td><td>Race</td></tr><tr><td>Adminis- trators</td><td>3</td><td>100</td><td>W</td></tr><tr><td>Teachers</td><td>57</td><td>95</td><td>W</td></tr><tr><td></td><td>2</td><td>3</td><td>B</td></tr><tr><td></td><td>1</td><td>2</td><td>H</td></tr><tr><td>Students</td><td>1017</td><td>94</td><td>W</td></tr><tr><td></td><td>31</td><td>3</td><td>B</td></tr><tr><td></td><td>21</td><td>2</td><td>H</td></tr><tr><td></td><td>7</td><td>1</td><td>O</td></tr></table>		#	%	Race	Adminis- trators	3	100	W	Teachers	57	95	W		2	3	B		1	2	H	Students	1017	94	W		31	3	B		21	2	H		7	1	O	<table><tr><td></td><td>#</td><td>%</td><td>Race</td></tr><tr><td>Adminis- trators</td><td>3</td><td>75</td><td>W</td></tr><tr><td>Teachers</td><td>1</td><td>25</td><td>B</td></tr><tr><td></td><td>96</td><td>88</td><td>W</td></tr><tr><td></td><td>9</td><td>8</td><td>B</td></tr><tr><td></td><td>4</td><td>4</td><td>H</td></tr><tr><td>Students</td><td>1839</td><td>85</td><td>W</td></tr><tr><td></td><td>145</td><td>7</td><td>B</td></tr><tr><td></td><td>158</td><td>7</td><td>H</td></tr><tr><td></td><td>31</td><td>1</td><td>O</td></tr></table>		#	%	Race	Adminis- trators	3	75	W	Teachers	1	25	B		96	88	W		9	8	B		4	4	H	Students	1839	85	W		145	7	B		158	7	H		31	1	O
	#	%	Race																																																																										
Adminis- trators	3	100	W																																																																										
Teachers	57	95	W																																																																										
	2	3	B																																																																										
	1	2	H																																																																										
Students	1017	94	W																																																																										
	31	3	B																																																																										
	21	2	H																																																																										
	7	1	O																																																																										
	#	%	Race																																																																										
Adminis- trators	3	75	W																																																																										
Teachers	1	25	B																																																																										
	96	88	W																																																																										
	9	8	B																																																																										
	4	4	H																																																																										
Students	1839	85	W																																																																										
	145	7	B																																																																										
	158	7	H																																																																										
	31	1	O																																																																										

Table 14-continued

School number one	School number two
B. Discipline practices and procedures	
The previous school year 210 (20%) students received corporal punishment:	The previous school year 56 (3%) students received corporal punishment:
199 (95%) were white	40 (71%) were white
5 (2%) were black	13 (23%) were black
5 (2%) were Hispanic	2 (4%) were Hispanic
1 (1%) was another race	1 (2%) was another race
The previous school year 88 (8%) of the students received out-of school suspension	The previous school year 163 (8%) of the students received out-of school suspension
78 (89%) were white	112 (69%) were white
7 (8%) were black	42 (26%) were black
3 (3%) were Hispanic	2 (1%) were another race
C. Grouping practices	
Students assigned to classes heterogeneously by their own selection.	Students assigned to classes heterogeneously by their own selection.
358 (33%) students enrolled in college preparatory courses	571 (26%) students enrolled in college preparatory courses
344 (96%) were white	509 (89%) were white
4 (1%) were black	13 (2%) were black
7 (2%) were Hispanic	33 (6%) were Hispanic
3 (1%) were another race	16 (3%) were another race
52 (5%) students labeled as educationally handicapped	71 (3%) students labeled as educationally handicapped
47 (90%) were white	55 (71%) were white
4 (8%) were black	13 (19%) were black
1 (2%) was Hispanic	3 (4%) were Hispanic

Table 14-continued

School number one	School number two
D. School and community	
Regularly scheduled meetings with parents (PAC), attending parents act in an advisory role in school policymaking. Very little minority parent participation.	Regularly scheduled meetings with parents (PAC), attending parents act in an advisory role in school policymaking. Very little minority parent participation. Monthly school newsletter is sent to parents published in English and Spanish.
E. Student activities	
Three student activity groups were composed of only white students: the honor society, the volleyball team, and the softball team. All other student groups were composed of some minority students.	All student activity groups were composed of at least some minority students except the golf team. Black students formed a majority group (49%) of the basketball team. Homecoming Queen elected by a majority of school population was a black.
F. Student friendship patterns	
Minority and majority students appeared to associate with each other with regularity.	Minority and majority students appeared to associate with each other with regularity.
No racial territories observed on school campus.	No racial territories observed on school campus.
Self-imposed segregation did appear on a limited basis in the cafeteria seating arrangements.	Self-imposed segregation did appear on a limited basis in the cafeteria seating arrangements.

population at each school were labeled as having an educational handicap.

Very little minority participation was observed in parent groups at either school.

Minority participation in student extracurricular activities at each school was similar.

Similar student friendship patterns were observed at each school.

Analysis of Related Variables From Both Instruments

The Student Survey measured students' attitudes toward people of different racial backgrounds which were related to school integration practices. Quantitative analysis was conducted on the students' responses. A mean score for each factor was determined. The Integration Instrument measured the degree to which certain practices and procedures recommended for achieving integration had been implemented. Data collected using this instrument were a combination of quantitative and qualitative.

Of the 19 integration variables measured by the Student Survey, 7 were found to be comparable to what was measured by the Integration Instrument. A comparison of the data collected on these related variables from both instruments follows.

School Number One

Using the Student Survey, all racial groups rated the school climate factor of community above the mean. The data collected with the Integration Instrument supported these findings. There appeared to be a high level of friendship among students of various racial groups.

White and black students rated the school climate factor of involvement below the mean on the Student Survey while Hispanic and other minority students rated it above the mean. The data collected using the Integration Instrument supported these findings. Whites and blacks did not always participate in student activities in representative numbers based on the total student population.

In completing the Student Survey, white, black, and other minority students rated the school climate factor of equal treatment below the mean. Black students rated this factor the lowest of all the factors they rated. Data from the Integration Instrument showed that 8% of those students suspended from school were black, while the black students composed only 3% of the total school population.

On the Student Survey, black, Hispanic, and other minority students rated the school integration practice of racial mixing above the mean. White students rated this practice close to the mean at 48.62. Data from the Integration Instrument supported these findings. Students from all minority groups were found interacting during, before, and after school.

Black and Hispanic students rated the school integration practice of staff support for integration below the mean. The data collected using the Integration Instrument supported these findings. There appeared to be an inadequate amount of curricular time spent on the study of minority contributions toward American society. While material dealing on minority topics were found in the media center, there appeared to be little teacher assignments for students which would require them to use these materials.

The school integration practice of staff models was rated above the mean by white and other minority students on the Student Survey, while black and Hispanic students rated this practice below the mean. This was supported by data collected using the Integration Instrument. Only 3 (5%) of the 57 teachers on school number one's staff were either black or Hispanic.

Black and Hispanic students rated the school integration practice of multicultural exposure below the mean on the Student Survey. Data collected using the Integration Instrument tended to support these findings, in that little curricular time was devoted to the role and contributions of minority members toward American society. Black and Hispanic students may have perceived this as a lack of support by staff members for integration. Also, no inservice training activities had been offered for teachers in the area of race relations in recent years.

School Number Two

Using the Student Survey, all racial groups rated the school climate factor of community above the mean. Data collected with the Integration Instrument supported these findings. Students from all racial groups were observed associating with each other with regularity.

The school climate factor of involvement was rated below the mean by white, black, and other minority students on the Student Survey. The data collected using the Integration Instrument supported these findings. White, black, and other minority students participated in

student activities in numbers which were not representative of the total student population.

All racial groups rated the school climate factor of equal treatment below the mean on the Student Survey. Data collected using the Integration Instrument showed a disproportionate number of white and black students, as compared to the total student population, received corporal punishment and were suspended from school as discipline measures taken by the school.

The school integration practice of racial mixing was rated above the mean by white, black, and other minority students on the Student Survey. Data collected with the Integration Instrument supported these findings. Students were found to intermingle between racial groups. No racial territories were observed on campus.

Black and Hispanic students rated the school integration practice of staff support for integration below the mean. The data collected using the Integration Instrument supported these findings. There appeared to be an inadequate amount of curricular time spent on the study of minority contributions toward American society. While materials dealing with this topic were found in the school media center, there appeared to be little teacher assigned work for students which would require them to use these materials.

A rating above the mean was given to the school integration practice of staff models by white and other minority students on the Student Survey. Data collected with the Integration Instrument showed only 12% of the faculty members of the school were comprised of

minority teachers, while over 15% of the student population was composed of minority students.

On the Student Survey, white and black students rated the school integration practice of multicultural exposure above the mean. The data collected using the Integration Instrument indicated that little curricular time was devoted by the school faculty to discussing the history and cultures of various races.

Summary

In this chapter, the data collected using the Student Survey and the Integration Instrument for two secondary schools were described. Also, a comparison of the data from seven similar integration variables measured by each instrument was presented.

A summarization of these findings is contained in Chapter V. In addition, the investigator's conclusion and recommendations for further study based upon the findings are also found in this chapter.

CHAPTER V
SUMMARY, MAJOR FINDINGS, CONCLUSION,
SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

Summary

One of the most important social issues to confront American society in the last century has been the desegregation of public schools. In 1954, the United States Supreme Court, in Brown v. Board of Education, declared the racial segregation of schools to be unlawful. The emphasis on eliminating this segregation of public schools has been the physical placement of students from various races under the same school roof. The assumption behind this desegregation of schools was that it was the first step in the process of providing minority students access to equal educational opportunities. While the desegregation of schools may have been accomplished, providing equal educational opportunities to minority students has not always occurred. The desegregation of a school has not always led to its integration.

Administrators were faced with the task of establishing integrated school settings. The development of an integrated environment in a school could not be accomplished without the cooperation of all individuals involved. Students entered school with racial attitudes which had been based on their family socioeconomic status and prior interracial experiences. School leaders could play a part in molding or redefining students' racial attitudes. In order to make informed decisions concerning the improvement of integration found in their schools, administrators need to know the school's current integration status.

This study was conducted for that very reason. The primary purpose of this study was to develop and validate an instrument which could be used by secondary school administrators to determine the extent of racial integration found in their schools.

In order to examine a school's status on its movement toward integration, a review of pertinent literature was completed. An analysis of this literature revealed that there were specific school factors which could be examined to assess the status of integration existing in a secondary school. A review of literature also revealed that some of the conditions associated with successful integration were under the control of school personnel (Forehand, 1976).

One such condition dealt with the curriculum in a school. To help students gain an understanding of the roles various ethnic groups played in the formation of American culture, curriculum needed to deal specifically with the accomplishments which minorities have made toward the formation of the prevailing American culture (Boyer & Hill, 1973).

School integration was enhanced when faculty members accepted responsibility for making it successful (Konnert, 1986). Teachers involuntarily assigned to schools with predominantly minority student populations, often perceived these schools as undesirable places to work and stayed there only until they became eligible to transfer to schools whose student population was that of predominantly white students (Bruno & Hansell, 1981). Teacher race was found to be associated with expectations for student's future success in college (Beady & Hansell, 1981). White teachers were found to have lower expectations for their students than black teachers in both low and

high achieving, predominantly black schools (Beady & Hansell, 1981). Teachers needed to be trained in becoming more effective in dealing with students of various minorities (Virage, 1973). As part of this, teachers could learn to enhance minority students' self-image by their actions toward these individuals (Virage, 1973). The extent to which a school's staff consisted of a representative ratio of majority and minority adults, who associated openly and cooperatively with each other, had been found to have a profound effect on student integration (Genova and Walberg, 1979).

The literature revealed school characteristics which could be described to measure the status of integration in a secondary school. These characteristics were compiled into an instrument entitled the Instrumentation for the Assessment of a School's Strengths and Weaknesses in Integration. This instrument was sent to the 17 directors of the federal desegregation assistance centers for race for their expert opinion as to the validity of each characteristic as an index of integration. A revised instrument was created based on the directors' responses.

The researcher trained an educator on the implementation of this instrument. This trained educator and the researcher formed an observation team which spent four days at two high schools in a Florida school district. The assessment of each school on the extent of attainment of each item on the instrument was conducted.

Further research on the degree of integration found in each of the two high schools was conducted. The School Climate and Integration Questionnaire for Students, developed by William Genova and Herbert

Walberg (1979), was designed as a practical research tool to assess the extent and quality of relations in a school as measured in terms of individual students' attitudes and reported behaviors toward people of other racial and ethnic groups. It was used as the criterion with which to compare the results of the Instrumentation for the Assessment of a School's Strengths and Weaknesses in Integration. This instrument measured the extent of integration on 19 variables found in a school. Two hundred eighteen eleventh grade students at one secondary school and 327 eleventh grade students at another secondary school completed this questionnaire. The data collected were analyzed in accordance with procedures established by the authors of the questionnaire. T-scores were generated for each school for all of the 19 variables of integration.

Major Findings

It was determined, through an analysis of the literature, that there were specific school factors which could be examined to assess the status of integration existing in a secondary school. The literature revealed 18 school factors which could be described to measure the status of integration in a secondary school. Directors of the federal desegregation assistance centers for race had established the validity of 16 of the 18 school factors as indices of school integration.

The observation team assessed the integration status of two high schools. The data collected on the two high schools by the observation team using the Instrumentation for the Assessment of a School's Strengths and Weaknesses in Integration enabled the team to draw

conclusions as to the degree of attainment of integration found in each school on specific areas measured by this instrument. An additional assessment of the degree of integration found in each school was conducted using The School Climate and Integration Questionnaire for Students as the criterion measure. The purpose of conducting this additional assessment was to compare the data collected between the two instruments and to find if similarities existed among the data.

Variables from each instrument were examined and a comparison was completed to determine if similarities existed between the specific integration characteristics measured by each instrument. Seven variables from the School Climate and Integration Questionnaire for Students were found to be comparable to school integration variables measured by the Instrumentation for the Assessment of a School's Strengths and Weaknesses in Integration. These seven variables dealt with

1. the level of friendship and mutual support students felt toward each other,
2. the extent to which school members participated in school activities,
3. the uniformity of school members' treatment,
4. the extent to which students of various races interacted,
5. the extent to which teachers and administrators supported interracial association,
6. the extent to which adequate ratios of minorities were on a school's staff, and

7. the extent to which the curricula of a school dealt with the history and cultures of various races.

The data collected using each instrument on these seven related variables were similar in each instance.

Conclusion

The results of this study permitted the drawing of the following conclusion:

The Instrumentation for the Assessment of a School's Strengths and Weaknesses in Integration can be used by school leaders to measure, in a relatively short period of time, a school's integration status.

Recommendations for Further Study

The extent and quality of race relations among students found in secondary schools varies considerably. Integration is a desirable school characteristic. School and community leaders should assess the status of integration in schools, and then establish priorities for improving race relations in schools. The primary intent of this study was to create and validate an instrument which could be used by practicing principals and assistant principals to assess a secondary school's integration status. It is difficult for practitioners to manage school operations and conduct studies of intergroup relations. This study was a beginning effort to develop an instrument for that purpose. More research is needed, however, to determine practical and valid indices of school integration. Recommendations for further research as an outgrowth of this study are as follows:

1. Conduct a similar study in another school district (or districts) in order to further classify the indices of integration. Such a study would strengthen or weaken the validity of each item on Instrumentation for the Assessment of a School's Strengths and Weaknesses in Integration.

2. Conduct studies of the six specific areas of integration used in Instrumentation for the Assessment of a School's Strengths and Weaknesses in Integration such as curriculum and instruction, discipline practices and procedures, grouping practices, school and community, student activities or student friendship patterns, and their relationship to the integration process.

3. Conduct a similar study using the instrument developed in this study using a criterion other than The School Climate and Integration Questionnaire for Students.

4. Conduct this study in a school where blacks, Hispanics, and other minorities form a larger percentage of the total school population.

APPENDIX A

FIRST VERSION OF THE
INSTRUMENTATION FOR THE ASSESSMENT OF A SCHOOL'S
STRENGTHS AND WEAKNESSES IN INTEGRATION

Instrumentation for the Assessment of a School's
Strengths and Weaknesses in Integration

A. Curriculum and Instruction

1. To what extent is information about history, culture, and contributions of America's minorities included in the curriculum?
- ☐ a. not at all
 - ☐ b. a separate unit in a particular course (name the course)

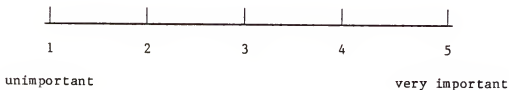
 - ☐ c. information is integrated into the overall curriculum
(indicate how this is done) _____

 - ☐ d. entire course devoted to study on minority contributions
(name course) _____

Method of Assessment

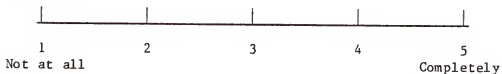
Evaluator will talk with the individual at the school who is responsible for the coordination of the curriculum to determine if information about the contributions of minorities is included in the curriculum. If it is, then he will talk to the teacher or teachers given the responsibility of providing the information to students, in order to discuss its implementation.

Relative Importance of Item with Respect to Integration (Circle the number which best reflects the item's potential contribution to integration.)



Comments on the Construction of Item (Does item make sense and is it worded in the best possible way?)

2. To what extent are the materials found in the media center representative of the history, culture, and contributions of America's minorities?

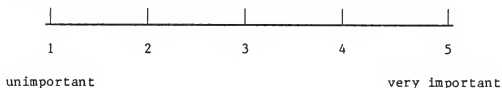


List examples of books, periodicals, and audio-visual materials found in the library that are representative of the history, culture, and contributions of America's minorities. With what frequency are these materials used?

Method of Assessment

Evaluator will interview media specialist to determine what materials are contained in the media center pertaining to the history, culture, and contributions of America's minorities.

Relative Importance of Item with Respect to Integration (Circle the number which best reflects the item's potential contribution to integration.)



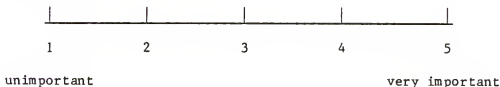
Comments on the Construction of Item (Does item make sense and is it worded in the best possible way?)

3. Have inservice activities been provided for teachers to help them be more effective in dealing with students of various minorities?
 ___ yes, ___ no: If yes, describe activities, give percentage of faculty participation and the dates of the activities.

Method of Assessment

Evaluator will talk with administrators in the school and the district inservice coordinator to determine if and what type of activities have been provided for teachers in this area.

Relative Importance of Item with Respect to Integration (circle the number which best reflects the items potential contribution to integration.)



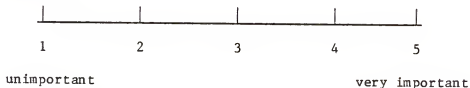
5. What are the years teaching experience of the faculty found in the school?

	White	Black	Other
# of teachers			
% of faculty			

Method of Assessment

Evaluator will retrieve the above information from the administrative records in the school office.

Relative Importance of Item with Respect to Integration (Circle the number which best reflects the item's potential contribution to integration.)



Comments on the Construction of Item (Does item make sense and is it worded in the best possible way?)

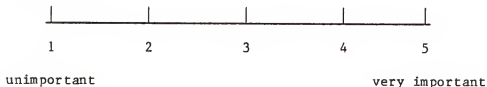
B. Discipline Practices and Procedures

1. The number of white, black, and those categorized as other minorities who received corporal punishment during the past school year.

Method of Assessment

Evaluator will retrieve the above information from the administrative records in the school office.

Relative Importance of Item with Respect to Integration (Circle the number which best reflects the item's potential contribution to integration.)



Comments on the Construction of Item (Does item make sense and is it worded in the best possible way?)

C. Grouping Practices

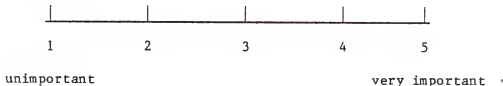
1. How are students assigned to classes?

- ☐ homogeneously by skill
- ☐ heterogeneously by skill
- ☐ by student selection

Method of Assessment

Evaluator will interview counselors for this information.

Relative Importance of Item with Respect to Integration (Circle the number which best reflects the item's potential contribution to integration.)



Comments on the Construction of Item (Does item make sense and is it worded in the best possible way?)

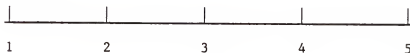
2. What percentage of students, by race, are enrolled in college preparatory courses?

- ___ Black students
- ___ White students
- ___ Other minority students

Method of Assessment

Evaluator will interview counselors for this information.

Relative Importance of Item with Respect to Integration (Circle the number which best reflects the item's potential contribution to integration.)



unimportant

very important

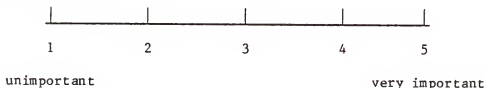
Comments on the Construction of Item (Does item make sense and is it worded in the best possible way?)

3. How many students, by race, are labeled as educationally handicapped?

Method of Assessment

Evaluator will interview parent in charge of organization for this information.

Relative Importance of Item with Respect to Integration (Circle the number which best reflects the item's potential contribution to integration.)



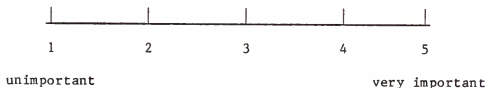
Comments on the Construction of Item (Does item make sense and is it worded in the best possible way?)

2. Describe any efforts made by the school to ensure the involvement of minority and majority parents in school policymaking.

Method of Assessment

Evaluator will interview administrators at the school.

Relative Importance of Item with Respect to Integration (Circle the number which best reflects the item's potential contribution to integration.)



Comments on the Construction of Item (Does item make sense and is it worded in the best possible way?)

E. Student Activities

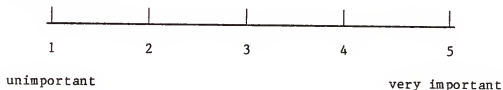
1. Are minority groups actively participating in proportion to their percentage in the student body in the following student activities:

	Total #	#	#	#
	Students	White %	Black %	Other %
a. student government	_____	_____	_____	_____
b. chorus	_____	_____	_____	_____
c. cheerleaders	_____	_____	_____	_____
d. band	_____	_____	_____	_____
e. drama club	_____	_____	_____	_____
f. yearbook and newspaper	_____	_____	_____	_____
g. honor society members	_____	_____	_____	_____
h. football members	_____	_____	_____	_____
i. basketball members	_____	_____	_____	_____
j. wrestling members	_____	_____	_____	_____
k. volleyball members	_____	_____	_____	_____
l. track and field members	_____	_____	_____	_____
m. swimming members	_____	_____	_____	_____
n. tennis members	_____	_____	_____	_____
o. golf members	_____	_____	_____	_____
p. softball members	_____	_____	_____	_____
q. baseball members	_____	_____	_____	_____
r. cross country members	_____	_____	_____	_____
s. other ()	_____	_____	_____	_____
t. other ()	_____	_____	_____	_____

Method of Assessment

Evaluator will interview student activity sponsors.

Relative Importance of Item with Respect to Integration (Circle the number which best reflects the item's potential contribution to integration.)



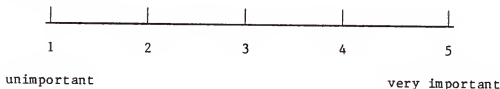
Comments on the Construction of Item (Does item make sense and is it worded in the best possible way?)

2. When a disproportionate number of students of one race (percentage above or below that found in school) participate in student activity, do they segregate themselves and avoid association with other groups? List activity and answer yes or no.

Method of Assessment

Evaluator will interview student activity sponsors.

Relative Importance of Item with Respect to Integration (Circle the number which best reflects the item's potential contribution to integration.)



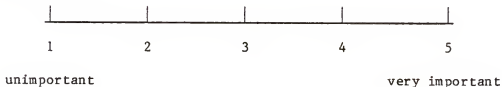
Comments on the Construction of Item (Does item make sense and is it worded in the best possible way?)

3. Are leadership positions in student activities shared by students of all racial cultural groups? List student activity and answer yes or no.

Method of Assessment

Evaluator will talk to student activity sponsors and ask them to list leaders of groups and indicate race.

Relative Importance of Item with Respect to Integration (Circle the number which best reflects the item's potential contribution to integration.)



Comments on the Construction of Item (Does item make sense and is it worded in the best possible way?)

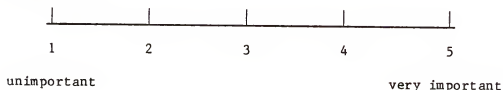
F. Student Friendship Patterns

1. When not in the classroom, do or do not students segregate according to race? Describe observations.

Method of Assessment

Evaluator will examine parts of school campus where students gather before and after school, during lunches and between classes.

Relative Importance of Item with Respect to Integration (Circle the number which best reflects the item's potential contribution to integration.)



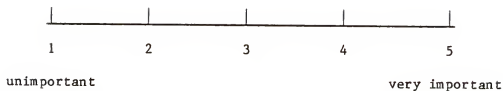
Comments on the Construction of Item (Does item make sense and is it worded in the best possible way?)

2. Do areas in classrooms, the cafeteria, and the media center where free-choice seating occurs, reflect self-imposed racial segregation? Describe observations.

Method of Assessment

Evaluator will examine these areas for self-imposed segregation.

Relative Importance of Item with Respect to Integration (Circle the number which best reflects the item's potential contribution to integration.)



Comments on the Construction of Item (Does item make sense and is it worded in the best possible way?)

Suggestions of Any Areas Essential for Integration Not Covered in the Instrument.

APPENDIX B

LIST OF RACE DESEGREGATION
ASSISTANCE CENTERS DIRECTORS

Race Desegregation Assistance Centers Directors

1. Dr. Gordon Foster
University of Miami
2. Dr. Charles D. Moody, Sr.
The University of Michigan
3. Dr. John Harris III
Indiana University Foundation
4. Dr. Benjamin Turner
Kent State University
5. Dr. Bennat C. Mullen
Stephen F. Austin State University
6. Mr. James E. Barnes
New England Equal Education Center
7. Mr. LeMar P. Miller
New York University
8. Dr. Ogle B. Duff
University of Pittsburgh
9. Dr. Sheryl Denbo
The American University
10. Dr. Fred Venditti
University of Tennessee
11. Dr. Charles I. Rankin
Kansas State University
12. Mr. Bradley Scott
Intercultural Development Resource Association
13. Dr. Percy Morehouse, Jr.
Weber State College
14. Dr. Randall Lindsey
California State University/LA
15. Dr. Leonard C. Beckum
Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development
16. Dr. Richard Withycombe
Portland State University
17. Dr. Alfredo R. Aragon
Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory

APPENDIX C

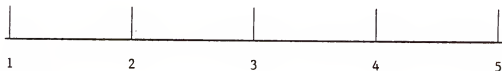
EXPERT VALIDATION LETTER

Expert Validation Letter

Currently I am writing my doctoral dissertation, at the University of Central Florida, entitled The Development of a Model to Identify Distinguishing Characteristics Between Desegregated and Integrated Schools. As one part of the data collection effort, I have designed an instrument to measure the extent to which certain practices and procedures are being used to bring "integration" in a "desegregated" secondary school. Items on this instrument have been derived from current theory and practice in the field of desegregation. Upon request, I will send you a copy of the review of literature from which the items in this instrument have been derived.

I am asking you to serve as one of a panel of experts in this subject area to help validate the items on the instrument. Would you provide the following assistance?

First, please look over all the items and then decide the relative importance of each with respect to the integration of the schools. For the purposes of this study "desegregation" is the physical mixing of students of various racial groups into the same school setting. "Integration" is the social climate that exists in a school that demonstrates students, educators, and parents of various racial groups are working together in equal status relations. With this in mind, assign each question a number which reflects its potential contribution to integration. To help you in this admittedly subjective task, please use the following scale.



unimportant

very important

In addition, I would appreciate your comments on any item on the basis of its construction, that is, does the question make sense and is it worded in the best possible way.

Please feel free to mark up the instrument in making whatever comments and revisions you feel improve it. There is room on the last part for you to suggest any areas essential for integration that are not covered in the instrument.

I have asked the other Directors of the Federal Desegregation Assistance Centers for Race to perform the same task so that I can get an idea of inter-judge reliability. If there is wide disagreement, I will certainly have to reconsider the utility of this approach for analyzing the integration of secondary schools. However, if there is substantial agreement, I will use the items to draw references about

the relationship of each to integration. I will send you a summary paper of my findings.

Thank you very much for your assistance.

Sincerely yours,

John Beall
1342 Sweetwood Blvd.
Kissimmee, FL 32743

APPENDIX D

FINAL VERSION OF THE
INSTRUMENTATION FOR THE ASSESSMENT OF A SCHOOL'S
STRENGTHS AND WEAKNESSES IN INTEGRATION

Instrumentation for the Assessment of a School's
Strengths and Weaknesses in Integration

A. Curriculum and Instruction

1. To what extent are courses or curriculum materials about the history, culture, and contributions of America's minorities included in the curriculum? (Please check all appropriate)

- ☐ a. not at all
- ☐ b. a separate unit in a particular course (name the course _____)
- ☐ c. information is integrated into the overall curriculum
(indicate how this is done _____)
- ☐ d. an entire course devoted to study on minority
contributions (name course _____)

Method of Assessment

Evaluator will talk with the individual at the school who is responsible for the coordination of the curriculum. This person will be asked to determine if courses or curriculum materials about the contributions of minorities are included in the curriculum and if a school policy exists to guide this effort. If it is, then the evaluator will talk to the teacher or teachers assigned the responsibility for providing this information to students.

2. To what extent are the books, periodicals, and audio-visual materials found in the media center representative of the history, culture, and contributions of America's minorities? Give examples and indicate with what frequency these materials are used and by whom?

Method of Assessment

Evaluator will interview the media specialist and ask him or her to determine what quantity of materials dealing with minorities exists in the media center. Next the media specialist will be asked to give examples of these books, periodicals, and audio-visual materials. What is the frequency of usage of these materials and who uses them?

3. Have inservice activities been provided for teachers to help them be more effective in dealing with students of various minorities?
___ yes, ___ no: If yes, give the titles of the activities, percentage of faculty participation, and the dates of the activities. How have the participants assessed the quality of the training they have received?

Method of Assessment

Evaluator will talk with administrators in the school and the district inservice coordinator to determine dates and content of the inservice activities. Evaluations are to be examined.

4. Indicate the number and ethnic composition of the administrators, counselors, teachers, and students in the school.

	W	%	B	%	H	%	O	%
administrators								
counselors								
teachers								
students								

Method of Assessment

Evaluator will retrieve the above information from the administrative records in the school office.

B. Discipline Practices and Procedures

1. How many students received corporal punishment as a result of demonstrating inappropriate behavior at school during the past year?

Total # of students _____.

	Number	% (relative to total number of students)
white students		
black students		
Hispanic students		
other minority students		

Method of Assessment

Evaluator will retrieve the above information from the administrative records in the school office.

C. Grouping Practices

1. How are students assigned to classes?

- ☐ homogeneously by skill
- ☐ heterogeneously by skill
- ☐ by student selection

Method of Assessment

Evaluator will interview counselors for this information.

2. What percentage of the students, by race, are enrolled in college preparatory courses?

- ☐ white students
- ☐ black students
- ☐ Hispanic students
- ☐ other minority students

Method of Assessment

Evaluator will interview counselors for this information.

3. How many students by race, are labeled as educationally handicapped?

Key: EMH = educable mentally handicapped
 EH = emotionally handicapped
 SLD = specific learning disabled
 TMH = trainable mentally handicapped

	#		#		#		#
	EMH	%	EH	SLD	%	TMH	%
white students							
black students							
Hispanic students							
other minority students							

Method of Assessment

Evaluator will interview counselors for this information.

D. School and Community

1. How many parents participate in parent-teacher organizations (PTO) or in parent advisory committee (PAC) groups? List breakdown by ethnic composition, number and frequency of meetings.

	Number	% (relative to total number of parents).
white parents		
black parents		
Hispanic parents		
other minority parents		

number of meetings per year _____

frequency of meetings _____

Method of Assessment

Evaluator will interview parents involved in PTO or PAC organizations of the school.

2. Describe any efforts made by the school to ensure the involvement of minority and majority parents in school policymaking.

Method of Assessment

Evaluator will interview administrators, teachers, and parents at the school.

Method of Assessment

Evaluator will interview student activity sponsors.

2. Are student leadership positions in activities representative of all racial groups? List student activity and answer yes or no.

Method of Assessment

Evaluator will talk to student activity sponsors and ask them to list leaders of groups and indicate their race.

F. Student Friendship Patterns

1. When not in the classroom, do students segregate according to race? Describe observations.

Method of Assessment

Evaluator will observe parts of school campus where students gather before and after school, during lunches and between classes to collect data on student friendship patterns.

2. Do there appear to be racial territories on the school campus? Describe observations.

Method of Assessment

Evaluator will observe parts of the school campus before and after school, during lunches and between classes to collect data on racial territories of the school.

3. Do areas in classrooms, the cafeteria, and the media center where free-choice seating occurs, reflect self-imposed racial segregation?

Describe observations.

Method of Assessment

Evaluator will observe these areas to collect data on self-imposed segregation.

APPENDIX E

LETTER OF ENDORSEMENT SENT TO EXPERTS

Letter of Endorsement Sent to Experts

Directors
Desegregation Center
for Race

Dear friend:

I would very much appreciate your replying in timely fashion to the attached material from Mr. Beall. He has worked at some length with his material and has received assistance from a former member of our staff, Dr. Charles Dziuban.

Sincerely,

Gordon Foster
Director Miami Desegregation
Center for Race

APPENDIX F

THE SCHOOL CLIMATE AND INTEGRATION
QUESTIONNAIRE FOR STUDENTS

The School Climate and Integration
Questionnaire for Students

- * We are trying to find out what students feel about school. We are also trying to find out what you know, feel and do about other people.
- * This is a questionnaire. IT IS NOT A TEST.
- * We do NOT ask for your name. Your answers are confidential. No one will be able to tell your answers from those of your classmates so please give us your own best answers to our questions.
- * You should be able to complete all four sections of the questionnaire before the end of this class. There is no need to hurry.
- * Read the instructions for EACH section of the questionnaire before you try to answer the questions.

SECTION I

IN THIS SECTION WE ARE ASKING QUESTIONS ABOUT YOU.
REMEMBER, WE DO NOT HAVE YOUR NAME, SO YOUR ANSWERS ARE
CONFIDENTIAL.

DIRECTIONS

1. FOR EACH QUESTION, PLEASE CIRCLE THE NUMBER NEXT TO THE ONE BEST ANSWER.
 2. FOR EXAMPLE, IF THE QUESTION WERE:
WHAT KIND OF SCHOOL ARE YOU IN THIS YEAR?
 1. ELEMENTARY SCHOOL
 2. MIDDLE SCHOOL
 3. HIGH SCHOOLYOU WOULD CIRCLE THE NUMBER "3" FOR "HIGH SCHOOL" IF YOU ARE ATTENDING HIGH SCHOOL.
 3. CIRCLE ONLY ONE NUMBER FOR EACH QUESTION.
 4. REMEMBER, GIVE THOUGHTFUL, HONEST ANSWERS.
-
-

1. What grade are you in this year?
 1. 7th grade
 2. 8th grade
 3. 9th grade
 4. 10th grade
 5. 11th grade
 6. 12th grade
2. Are you male or female?
 1. Male
 2. Female
3. Which of these best describes you?
 1. Asian (Chinese, Japanese, and so on)
 2. Black
 3. Hispanic (Puerto Rican, Cuban, Central or South American, and so on)
 4. Portuguese
 5. White
 6. Other (Please specify) _____
4. Considering the courses you are taking or plan to take, would you say you are or will be:
 1. In a Vocational Program
 2. In a College Bound Program
 3. In a Business or Secretarial Program
 4. In a General Program
 5. Don't know

5. After you leave high school, what do you plan to do?
 1. Attend a regular four-year college or university
 2. Attend a two-year junior or community college
 3. Get additional special training (nursing school, technical school, business school, and so on)
 4. Get a full-time job or enlist in the armed services
 5. Get a job and go to school at night
 6. Undecided
6. What kind of marks do you get in school?
 1. Mostly A's
 2. Mostly A's and B's
 3. Mostly B's
 4. Mostly B's and C's
 5. Mostly C's
 6. Mostly C's and D's
 7. Mostly D's
 8. Mostly D's and F's
7. How do you get to school?
 1. I walk or drive myself to school
 2. I take public transportation
 3. I take a school bus
 4. I am driven by friends or family
8. Counting this year, how many years have you attended this school?
 1. One year
 2. Two years
 3. Three years
 4. Four or more years
9. Do you live with your parents?
 1. Both parents
 2. Mother only
 3. Father only
 4. Neither parent
- 10/11. What do you think is the highest level of education completed by each of your parents or guardians?

	10. Father or Male <u>Guardian</u> (circle one number)	11. Mother or Female <u>Guardian</u> (circle one number)
Did not complete high school	1	1
Finished high school or equivalent	2	2
Business or trade school	3	3
Some college	4	4
Finished college	5	5
Went to graduate school (for example law or medical school) but did not finish	6	6
Has a graduate degree such as Master's or Doctor's degree (M.S., Ph.D., M.D., D.D.S.)	7	7
Doesn't apply	8	8

12/13. Which of the following categories come closest to your parent's or guardian's occupation? (If out of work, or retired, choose one closest to what they did last)

	12. Father or Male <u>Guardian</u> (circle one number)	13. Mother or Female <u>Guardian</u> (circle one number)
Unskilled worker, (such as; laborer, house cleaner, homemaker, orderly, kitchen worker)	1	1
Semiskilled worker (such as; machine operator, assembler, garment worker, driver)	2	2
Service worker (such as; police, firefighter, hair dresser, school aide, waiter, waitress)	3	3
Skilled worker or craftsman (such as; carpenter, electrician, plumber, jeweler, technician)	4	4
Salesperson, bookkeeper, secretary, office worker, data processor	5	5
Owner, manager, or partner of a small business, lower-level governmental official	6	6
Professional requiring a college degree (such as; engineer, elementary or secondary teacher, social worker, registered nurse)	7	7
Owner, or high-level executive of a large business or high-level government agency	8	8
Professional requiring an advanced college degree (such as; doctor, lawyer, college professor)	9	9

14. Describe the kind of work that your father or male guardian does:
(for example: salesperson, store clerk, dishwasher)

15. Describe the kind of work that your mother or female guardian does: (for example: housewife, store clerk, nurse)
-

MANY QUESTIONS SHOWN BELOW REFER TO "RACIAL AND ETHNIC" GROUPS.
REMEMBER, BY "RACIAL AND ETHNIC" WE MEAN PEOPLE WHO ARE:

ASIAN (SUCH AS CHINESE, JAPANESE, AND OTHERS)

BLACK

HISPANIC (SUCH AS PUERTO RICAN, CUBAN, CENTRAL OR SOUTH
AMERICAN, AND SO ON)

PORTUGUESE

WHITE

AND SO ON

16. Counting this school year, what is the total number of years you have had students from other racial and ethnic groups in your classes?
1. None
 2. One year
 3. Two years
 4. Three to five years
 5. Six or more years
17. In your present neighborhood:
1. All or most of the kids are from my own racial or ethnic group
 2. About half of the kids are from my own racial or ethnic group
 3. Most of the kids are from other racial and ethnic groups
18. In your regular school classes this year, how many of the students are from your own racial or ethnic group?
1. Most
 2. About half
 3. Few
19. Counting this year, how many years have you lived in neighborhoods with people from other racial or ethnic groups?
1. None
 2. One year
 3. Two years
 4. Three to five years
 5. Six or more years

20. Of the kids you hang around with outside of school:
1. All or most are from my own racial or ethnic group
 2. About half are from my own racial or ethnic group
 3. Most are from other racial or ethnic groups
21. What is the main reason for your coming to this school this year?
1. I was assigned because it is my closest school
 2. I was assigned in order to racially balance the school
 3. I chose to come because of school programs it offers
 4. My parents wanted me to come here
22. Do you feel any different right now about people of other racial and ethnic groups than you usually do?
1. Yes, I feel better right now about them
 2. No, I feel about the same as I usually do
 3. Yes, I feel worse right now about them

SECTION II

THE PURPOSE OF THIS SECTION IS TO FIND OUT WHAT YOUR SCHOOL IS LIKE. AGAIN, YOUR ANSWERS ARE CONFIDENTIAL, SO GIVE US YOUR OWN THOUGHTFUL, HONEST ANSWERS.

DIRECTIONS

1. THINK HOW WELL EACH STATEMENT DESCRIBES YOUR SCHOOL.
2. CIRCLE ONE NUMBER FOR EACH STATEMENT ACCORDING TO THE FOLLOWING INSTRUCTIONS:

CIRCLE 1 IF YOU STRONGLY DISAGREE (SD) WITH THE STATEMENT.

CIRCLE 2 IF YOU JUST DISAGREE (D) WITH THE STATEMENT.

CIRCLE 3 IF YOU JUST AGREE (A) WITH THE STATEMENT.

CIRCLE 4 IF YOU STRONGLY AGREE (SA) WITH THE STATEMENT.

3. FOR EXAMPLE, IF THE STATEMENT WERE:

	SD	D	A	SA
STUDENTS IN THIS SCHOOL ARE FRIENDLY.	1	2	3	4

YOU WOULD CIRCLE THE NUMBER "1" IF YOU "STRONGLY DISAGREE" WITH THAT STATEMENT.

	SD	D	A	SA
1. The students here have a lot of school spirit.	1	2	3	4
2. You can get good advice in this school when you need it.	1	2	3	4
3. On most days I look forward to my classes.	1	2	3	4
4. Students here get the marks they earn.	1	2	3	4
5. You feel left out if you're not part of a group in this school.	1	2	3	4
6. Learning is more important than marks in this school.	1	2	3	4
7. Students are encouraged to discuss their own ideas freely in classes.	1	2	3	4
8. No one really knows the goals of this school.	1	2	3	4
9. Students here do as little as they have to.	1	2	3	4
10. People here usually avoid admitting problems exist.	1	2	3	4
11. Students know exactly what will happen when they break a rule.	1	2	3	4
12. Students don't have much choice about which courses they can take.	1	2	3	4
13. Students help make the rules in this school.	1	2	3	4
14. People in this school only look out for themselves.	1	2	3	4
15. Students seldom talk to the principal unless they're in trouble.	1	2	3	4

	SD	D	A	SA
16. Most students here would be upset if they came to school and found a lot of equipment destroyed.	1	2	3	4
17. Only the smarter students ever get the best teachers.	1	2	3	4
18. You need to be in a group to be liked in this school.	1	2	3	4
19. Students here learn many things that will be useful to them after they leave school.	1	2	3	4
20. People in this school are afraid to speak out.	1	2	3	4
21. Most students feel that this school helps them meet their own goals.	1	2	3	4
22. This school doesn't demand enough from the students.	1	2	3	4
23. Students here talk openly about school problems.	1	2	3	4
24. School rules are broken so often they're considered a joke.	1	2	3	4
25. Students here can be trained to qualify for many different kinds of jobs.	1	2	3	4
26. Students have little say in planning school activities.	1	2	3	4
27. If I walked around school all day feeling bad about something, nobody would even notice.	1	2	3	4
28. Most people here will take enough time to listen.	1	2	3	4
29. Many students here would prefer to avoid school.	1	2	3	4
30. Certain groups of students in this school are looked down on.	1	2	3	4
31. People here tend to label you by the group you're in.	1	2	3	4
32. This school teaches you how to deal with all kinds of people.	1	2	3	4
33. Students can be themselves in this school.	1	2	3	4
34. Students often work against what this school is trying to do.	1	2	3	4
35. No one in this school thinks the work is very important.	1	2	3	4
36. The same old problems are never solved in this school.	1	2	3	4
37. Everyone understands the rules in this school.	1	2	3	4
38. This school has something to offer to students with many different interests.	1	2	3	4
39. Student government has no power in this school.	1	2	3	4

SECTION III

THE PURPOSE OF THIS SECTION IS TO FIND OUT MORE ABOUT WHAT YOUR SCHOOL IS LIKE.

ONCE AGAIN, YOUR ANSWERS ARE CONFIDENTIAL, SO BE AS THOUGHTFUL AND HONEST AS POSSIBLE IN ANSWERING.

MANY QUESTIONS IN THIS SECTION REFER TO "RACIAL AND ETHNIC" GROUPS. REMEMBER, BY "RACIAL AND ETHNIC" WE MEAN PEOPLE WHO ARE:

ASIAN (SUCH AS CHINESE, JAPANESE, AND OTHERS)

BLACK

HISPANIC (SUCH AS PUERTO RICAN, CUBAN, CENTRAL OR SOUTH AMERICAN, AND OTHERS)

PORTUGUESE

WHITE

AND SO ON

DIRECTIONS

1. THINK ABOUT HOW WELL EACH STATEMENT DESCRIBES YOUR SCHOOL.
2. CIRCLE ONE NUMBER FOR EACH STATEMENT, JUST AS YOU DID IN THE SECOND SECTION OF THIS QUESTIONNAIRE YOU JUST FINISHED.

	SD	D	A	SA
In my school this year...				
1. Students from other racial and ethnic groups always stick together, avoiding the rest of us.	1	2	3	4
2. Certain clubs and teams have few, if any, students from my racial or ethnic group.	1	2	3	4
3. Students of other racial and ethnic groups often sit with me at lunch.	1	2	3	4
4. There are many opportunities for me to get to know students from other racial and ethnic groups.	1	2	3	4
5. Students of other racial and ethnic groups have avoided walking or standing near to me.	1	2	3	4
6. Students of other racial and ethnic groups have avoided talking about school work with me.	1	2	3	4
7. Some teachers from my racial or ethnic group don't mix with teachers from other racial and ethnic groups.	1	2	3	4
8. The principal acts equally friendly with teachers from my own and other racial and ethnic groups.	1	2	3	4
9. Teachers often talk with pride about their own racial and ethnic groups.	1	2	3	4

	SD	D	A	SA
10. There aren't enough teachers from my racial or ethnic group.	1	2	3	4
11. Teachers from my racial or ethnic group get along well with teachers from other racial or ethnic groups.	1	2	3	4
12. The principal seems to favor students from my racial and ethnic group.	1	2	3	4
13. Students of other racial and ethnic groups have never called me bad names.	1	2	3	4
14. Most student fights have nothing to do with racial and ethnic issues.	1	2	3	4
15. Students of other racial and ethnic groups have threatened to hurt me in some way.	1	2	3	4
16. Students of other racial and ethnic groups have pushed or hit me.	1	2	3	4
17. The principal and teachers have to protect students of my racial or ethnic group.	1	2	3	4
18. Students of other racial and ethnic groups have stolen from me.	1	2	3	4
19. Our principal likes students of different racial and ethnic groups going to the same school together.	1	2	3	4
20. Some teachers seem uneasy when they are around students from my racial and ethnic group.	1	2	3	4
21. Teachers try to get the students from my own and other racial and ethnic groups to get along well.	1	2	3	4
22. Teachers in my classes seem to favor students from their own racial and ethnic groups.	1	2	3	4
23. Many teachers point out how people from my racial or ethnic group contributed to the subject being taught (such as history, art, science, literature).	1	2	3	4
24. Teachers in this school try to ignore or cover up differences between students of my own and other racial and ethnic groups.	1	2	3	4
25. We never talk about how students from my own and other racial or ethnic groups can get along well.	1	2	3	4
26. We have studied a lot about the history of people from my racial or ethnic group.	1	2	3	4
27. I have had teachers from my own and from other racial and ethnic groups.	1	2	3	4
28. My teachers never assign me to do projects and other school work with students of racial or ethnic groups other than my own.	1	2	3	4
29. It's easy to find books in the school library about people from my own and other racial and ethnic groups.	1	2	3	4

	SD	D	A	SA
30. We have studied a lot about the history of people from other racial and ethnic groups.	1	2	3	4
31. Students from my racial or ethnic group are treated unfairly.	1	2	3	4
32. Teachers are equally friendly to students of all racial and ethnic groups.	1	2	3	4
33. Students from my racial or ethnic group are more likely to get suspended.	1	2	3	4
34. Teachers in this school expect more from students of my racial or ethnic group.	1	2	3	4
35. Students from my racial and ethnic group receive as much extra help as they ask for with their school work.	1	2	3	4
36. Students from my racial and ethnic group are more likely to get assigned the best teachers.	1	2	3	4

SECTION IV

THE PURPOSE OF THIS SECTION IS TO FIND OUT WHAT YOU KNOW, FEEL AND DO ABOUT OTHER PEOPLE.

REMEMBER, THIS IS NOT A TEST AND YOUR ANSWERS ARE CONFIDENTIAL, SO GIVE US THE BEST ANSWER YOU CAN, EVEN IF IT IS ONLY YOUR BEST GUESS.

IF YOU ARE NOT SURE HOW TO ANSWER QUESTIONS, GIVE US THE BEST ANSWER YOU CAN, EVEN IF IT IS ONLY YOUR BEST GUESS.

AGAIN, MANY QUESTIONS REFER TO "RACIAL AND ETHNIC" GROUPS BY WHICH WE MEAN PEOPLE WHO ARE:

ASIAN (SUCH AS CHINESE, JAPANESE, AND OTHERS)

BLACK

HISPANIC (SUCH A PUERTO RICAN, CUBAN, CENTRAL OR SOUTH AMERICAN AND OTHERS)

PORTUGUESE

WHITE

AND SO ON

DIRECTIONS

1. WE AGAIN WANT TO KNOW HOW WELL YOU AGREE OR DISAGREE WITH EACH OF THE FOLLOWING STATEMENTS.
2. CIRCLE ONE NUMBER FOR EACH STATEMENT, JUST AS YOU DID IN THE TWO PRECEEDING SECTIONS.

	SD	D	A	SA
1. There are many thousands of Americans who speak Chinese most of the time.	1	2	3	4
2. All people with dark colored skin call themselves "blacks", or "black people".	1	2	3	4
3. Irish immigrants to America did much of the work in building the first railroad across this country.	1	2	3	4
4. People from most racial and ethnic groups were discriminated against in housing, jobs, and schools when they moved to America.	1	2	3	4
5. Japanese Americans were held without trial in prison-like camps by the U.S. Government during the Second World War.	1	2	3	4
6. One reason some people from a racial or ethnic group stay together is because other people are unfriendly toward them.	1	2	3	4

	SD	D	A	SA
7. It is against the law to give the best teachers to certain students just because of their racial or ethnic group.	1	2	3	4
8. In many U.S. cities there are poor neighborhoods where only Polish Americans or only Irish Americans or only Italian Americans live.	1	2	3	4
9. One reason some people from a racial or ethnic group stay together is that they don't like people from other racial or ethnic groups.	1	2	3	4
10. People who are born and live in Puerto Rico are American citizens.	1	2	3	4
11. It is against the law for us to keep people of other racial or ethnic groups from moving into our neighborhoods.	1	2	3	4
12. It would probably bother me if several families from other racial or ethnic groups moved into my neighborhood.	1	2	3	4
13. Given the free choice, I would go to a school with students who were mostly from other racial or ethnic groups.	1	2	3	4
14. I tend to feel uneasy working on school projects with a student from another racial or ethnic group.	1	2	3	4
15. I feel as safe with kids of other racial or ethnic groups as I do with kids of my own racial or ethnic group.	1	2	3	4
16. I would like to have more friends who are from other racial or ethnic groups.	1	2	3	4
17. Only a person from your own racial or ethnic group can understand you well enough to be your best friend.	1	2	3	4
18. In this school year, I have acted unfriendly toward students of other racial or ethnic groups.	1	2	3	4
19. None of my good friends in school this year are from other racial and ethnic groups.	1	2	3	4
20. In this school year, I have chosen to sit at lunch with students of other racial and ethnic groups.	1	2	3	4
21. In this school year, I have tried to make friends with students of other racial and ethnic groups.	1	2	3	4
22. In this school year, I have avoided walking near students from other racial or ethnic groups.	1	2	3	4
23. In this school year, I have avoided talking to students of other racial and ethnic groups.	1	2	3	4

APPENDIX G

LETTER SENT TO OBTAIN PERMISSION TO USE
THE SCHOOL CLIMATE AND INTEGRATION
QUESTIONNAIRE FOR STUDENTS

Letter Sent to Obtain Permission to Use
The School Climate and Integration Questionnaire for Students

Dr. H. J. Walberg
University of Illinois
Rm. 3123 ECSW
M-C147
College of Education
Chicago, Ill. 60680

Dear Dr. Walberg,

Currently I am writing my doctoral dissertation, at the University of Florida, entitled The Development of a Model to Identify Distinguishing Characteristics Between Desegregated and Integrated Schools. As one part of the data collection effort, I have designed an instrument to measure the extent to which certain practices and procedures are being used to bring "integration" into a "desegregated" secondary school. Items on this instrument were derived from current theory and practice in the field of desegregation. Upon request, I will send you a copy of the instrument.

I have examined a study you completed with William J. Genova entitled "Promoting Student Integration in City High Schools: A Research Study and Improvement Guideline for Practitioners" (ERIC #181-161). I am requesting permission to use your survey found in this study on eleventh grade students at two high schools in Osceola County, Florida. I would use data collected from your survey to field test data collected using my instrument.

I would also like to know if the survey, "School Climate and Integration Questionnaire for Students" has been validated.

Thank-you very much for your assistance.

Sincerely,

John Beall
1342 Sweetwood Blvd.
Kissimmee, Florida 32743

REFERENCES

- Ascik, T. (1984). An investigation of school desegregation and its effects on black student achievement. American Education, 20, 15-19.
- Bash, J. H., & Long, R. L. (1968). Effective administration in desegregated schools. Bloomington, Illinois: Phi Delta Kappan.
- Bazeli, F. P. (1976). Integrating the desegregated school. NASSP Bulletin, 60 (397), 80-84.
- Beady, C. H., & Hansell, S. (1981). Teacher race and expectations for student achievement. American Educational Research, 18, 191-206.
- Bell, D. (1980). Shades of Brown: New perspectives on school desegregation. New York: Teachers College Press.
- Bergman, P. (1969). The Negro in America. New York: Harper and Row.
- Bettelheim, B. (1958). Sputnik and segregation. Commentary, 26, 332-339.
- Borman, D. H., & Hoffman, J. (1968). The dynamics of school integration problems and approaches in a city. Grand Rapids, Michigan: William B. Erdmans Publishing Company.
- Boyer, J., & Hill, H. D. (1973). Desegregating the curriculum. Educational Leadership, 30, 759-760.
- Bradley, L., & Bradley, G. (1977). The academic achievement of black students in desegregated schools: A critical review. Review of Educational Research, 47, 399-449.
- Braddock, J. H., Crain, C. J., & McPartland, J. M. (1984). A long term view of school desegregation: Some recent studies of graduates as adults. Phi Delta Kappan, 66, 259-264.
- Braxton, M. V. & Bullock, C. J. (1972) Teacher partiality in desegregation. Integrated Education, 10 (4), 42-46.
- Brezner, J. L. (1974). The relationship of administrative practices and procedures to the integration of desegregated secondary schools (Doctoral Dissertation, University of Miami, 1973). Dissertation Abstracts International, 35, 5710A, No. 75-4148.

Briggs v. Elliot, 132 F. Supp. 776 (1955).

Brophy, J. E., & Good, T. L. (1970). Teachers' communication of different expectations for children's classroom performance: Some behavioral data. Journal of Educational Psychology, 61, 365-374.

Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka, 347 U. S. 43 (1954).

Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka, 349 U. S. 294 (1955).

Bruno, J. E., & Doscher, M. L. (1981). Contributing to the harm of racial isolation: Analysis of requests for teacher transfers in large urban school district. Educational Administrator Quarterly, 17, 93-108.

Chesler, M. A., Crawford, J. E., & Bryant, B. I. (1978) Institutional changes to support school desegregation: Alternative models underlying research and implementation. Law and Contemporary Problems, 42, 174-213.

Coleman, J. S. (1972). Social and cultural integration and educational policy. In H. J. Walberg and A. T. Kapan (Eds.), Rethinking urban education (pp. 145-167). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, Inc.

Coleman, J. S., Campbell, E. Q., Hobson, C. J., McPartland, J., Mood, A. M., Weinfield, F. D., & York, R. L. (1966). Equality of educational opportunity. Washington, D. C.: National Center for Educational Statistics, U. S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare. (ERIC Reproduction Service No. ED 012 275)

Crocker, L. & Algina, J. (1986). Introduction to classical and modern test theory. New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston.

Curet, M. (1976). Lessening racial conflicts in the classroom. NASSP Bulletin, 60 (397), 38-43.

Desegregation nurtures academic and career aspirations. (1986). Phi Delta Kappan, 68, 337.

Deslonde, J. L. (1972). How can we really integrate the schools? Integrated Education, 10 (3), 44-51.

Doering, R. (1974). Evaluating integrated secondary education: Training and technical manual. Riverside, California: Program Research in Integrated Multi-Ethnic Education, University of California, Riverside.

DuBois, W. E. B. (1935). Black reconstruction. New York: Russell and Russell.

- Edmonds, R. R., & Frederickson, J. R. (1978) Search for effective schools: The identification and analysis of city schools that are instructionally effective for poor children. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University.
- Epstein, J. C. (1985). After the bus arrives: Resegregation in desegregated schools. Journal of Social Issues, 41 (3), 23-43.
- Fain, S. M., Shostak, R., & Dean, J. F. (1979). Teaching in America. Dallas: Scott, Foresman and Company.
- Feagin, J. R. (1980). School desegregation: A political-economic perspective. In W. G. Stephan (Ed.). School Desegregation: Past, present and future (pp.33-42). New York: Plenum Press.
- First plateau: Washington court ruling. (1973, February 26). Newsweek, p. 50.
- Forehand, C. A. (1976). Conditions and processes of effective school desegregation: Final report. Princeton, N. J.: Educational Testing Service. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. Ed. 131 155)
- Forehand, G., & Ragosta, M. (1976). A handbook for integrated schooling. Washington, D. C.: Office of Education. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 131 154)
- Fredericksen, J. (1975). School effectiveness and equality of educational opportunity. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University.
- Gallup, G. H. (1986). The 18th annual Gallup poll of the public's attitudes toward the public schools. Phi Delta Kappan, 62, 33-47.
- Genova, W. J. & Walberg, H. J. (1979). Promoting student integration in city high schools: A research study and improvement guidelines for practitioners. Newton, Mass.: TDR Associates. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 181 161)
- Gossett, T. F. (1975). Race: The history of an idea in America. New York: Schocken.
- Greenberg, J. (1969). Race relations and the American law. In H. H. Horowitz & K. L. Karst (Eds.), Law, lawyers, and social change (pp.47-63). Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill.
- Hughes, L. W., Gordan, W. M., & Hillman, L. W. (1980). Desegregating America's schools. New York: Longman.
- Irvine, R. W., & Irvine, J. (1983). Journal of Negro Education, 52, 410-422.

- Jencks, C., & Brown, M. (1975). The effects of desegregation on student achievement: Some new evidence from the equality of educational opportunity survey. Sociology of Education, 48, 126-140.
- Johnson, M. L. (1984). Blacks in mathematics: A status report. Journal for Research in Mathematics, 15, 145-153.
- Jones, L. (1979). From Brown to Boston: Desegregation in education 1954-1974. Metuchen, N. J.: The Scarecrow Press.
- Killian, L. M. (1972). School desegregation: Past, present, future. Integrated Education, 10, 3-10.
- Kimball, S. T., & Wagley, C. (1974). Race and culture in school and community. Gainesville, Florida: Department of Anthropology. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 095 251)
- Kluger, R. Simple justice. New York: Knopf, 1976.
- Konnert, M. W. (1986). Staff concern, commitment ensure success of desegregation plan. NASSP Bulletin, 70 (490), 77-79.
- Lawrence, C. (1980). One more river to cross--recognizing the real injury in Brown: A prerequisite to shaping new remedies. In D. Bell (Ed.), Shades of Brown's new perspectives on school desegregation (pp. 48-68). New York: Teachers College Press.
- Leflar, R. A. (1970). Law of the land. In D. Shoemaker (Ed.), With all deliberate speed: Segregation in southern schools (pp. 1-14). Westpoint, Connecticut: Negro Universities Press.
- Lewis, A. C. (1985). With liberty and justice--For whom? Phi Delta Kappan, 67, 179-180.
- Lively, K., & Gallagher, K. (1987, May 10). Racial gap in discipline: Educators mull reasons. The Orlando Sentinel, pp. 1,6.
- McPartland, J. (1967). The relative influence of school desegregation on the academic achievement of ninth grade students. Baltimore, Maryland: Johns Hopkins University.
- O'Reilly, R. (1970). Racially integrated schools and the future of public education. Educational Leadership, 81, 837-840.
- Pettigrew, R. A. (1967). Race and educational opportunity. Symposium on implications of the Coleman Report on Equality of Educational Opportunity, Washington, D. C.

- Picott, R. (1976). A quarter century of elementary and secondary education. Washington, D. C.: Association for the Study of Negro Life and History.
- Plessy v. Ferguson, 163 U. S. 537 (1896).
- Read, F. T. (1975). Judicial evolution of the law of school integration since Brown v. Board of Education. Law and Contemporary Problems, 39 (1), 7-49.
- Rosenberg, M., & Simmons, R. G. (1971). Black and white esteem: The urban school child. Washington, D. C.: American Sociological Association.
- Rowan, B., Bossert, S., & Dwyer, D. (1983). Research on effective schools: A cautionary note. Educational Researcher, 12 (4), 24-31.
- Sanders, J. M. (1984). Faculty desegregation and student achievement. American Educational Research Journal, 21, 605-616.
- Sarratt, R. (1966). The ordeal of desegregation. New York: Harper and Row.
- Saylor, J. G., & Alexander, W. M. (1974). Planning curriculum for schools. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
- Sendor, B. (1987). These two cases raise key questions (but offer ambiguous answers) about school desegregation. The American School Board Journal, 173 (1), 12-13.
- Sizemore, B., Brossard, C., & Harrigan, B. (1983). An abashing anomaly: The high achieving predominantly black elementary schools. Washington, D. C.: National Institute.
- Stephan, W. G. (1980). School desegregation: Past, present, and future. New York: Plenum Press.
- St. John, N. H. (1975). School desegregation outcomes for children. New York: John Wiley and Sons.
- Thompson, E. T. (1974). Plantation societies, race relations and the South: The regimentation of populations. Durham, N. C.: Duke University Press.
- Turnage, M. (1972). The principal: Change agent in desegregation. Integrated Education, 10 (2), 41-45.
- Tyack, D., & Lowe, R. (1986). The constitutional moment: Reconstruction and black education in the South. American Journal of Education, 95, 236-253.

- Virage, W. F. (1973). Integrating the desegregated school: Some observations and suggestions. Petersburg, Va.: Virginia State College. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 092 473)
- Vredevoe, L. E. (1967). The effects of desegregation upon school discipline. Los Angeles: University of California. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 018 453)
- Weinberg, M. A. (1970). A chance to learn. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Wilcox, P. (1970). Integration or separatism in education: K-12. Integrated Education, 8 (1), 23-32.

BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

John Walter Beall was born in Washington, D. C., in 1949. He is the son of Malcolm and Lucile Beall. He received his elementary and secondary education in Prince George's County, Maryland.

In September, 1967, he entered Prince George's Community College from which he graduated with an Associate in Arts degree in June of 1970. He then served in the United States Navy as a hospital corpsman. From 1972 to 1975 he attended the University of Central Florida and obtained a Bachelor of Arts degree in education. He was then employed as a teacher of science at Denn John Middle School in Kissimmee, Florida.

In January, 1976, he was admitted to the Graduate School of the University of Central Florida. Having been granted the degree of Master of Education in June, 1978, Mr. Beall was then accepted into the doctoral program in educational leadership, at the University of Florida.

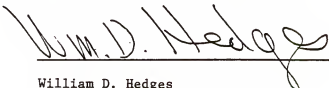
From March 1981 to June 1987 Mr. Beall was an Assistant Principal at St. Cloud High School in St. Cloud, Florida. Mr. Beall became Principal at Ross E. Jeffries Elementary School in St. Cloud, Florida, in July of 1987.

I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Education.



William H. Drummond, Chairman
Professor of Educational Leadership

I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Education.



William D. Hedges
Professor of Educational Leadership

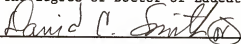
I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Education.



Eugene A. Todd
Professor of Instruction and Curriculum

This dissertation was submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the College of Education and to the Graduate School and was accepted as partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Education.

August 1987



Dean, College of Education

Dean, Graduate School